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ABSTRACT

This guide is part of the Project BORN FREE training series for teachers, counselors, administrators and parents, designed to increase their awareness of adolescent career development patterns. The materials contain a set of independent learning strategies which combine to provide an intervention model for use at the secondary school level. Facilitator instructions, the group process, the change process, and evaluation methods are detailed. The six chapters define objectives and methods for facilitating career development, and outline a curriculum. Several uses for the training packets are suggested, including inservice workshops, staff development, and classroom presentations. A sample workshop and course designs are presented as well as summary of the literature review. (Author/KMF)

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PROJECT BORN FREE

TRAINING PACKET TO REDUCE SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING IN CAREER DEVELOPMENT

SECONDARY LEVEL

by

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With Contributions by
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CG 015261

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Code System

P/E = Parent/Educator Appropriateness

P = especially effective with parent groups
E = especially effective with educators
P-E = equally effective with either group

TL = Level of Group Trust Required

TL-L = strategy can be used with a group that has a low trust level
TL-M = group needs to have a medium trust level
TL-H = group needs to have a high trust level

CD = Level of Awareness of Career Development Concepts and Issues

CD-L = strategy can be used with a group with a low level of awareness of career development concepts and issues
CD-M = group needs a medium level of career development awareness
CD-H = group needs a high level of career development awareness

SR = Level of Awareness of Sex-Role Issues

SR-L = strategy can be used with a group that has a low level of awareness of sex-role issues
SR-M = group needs a medium level of awareness of sex-role issues
SR-H = group needs a high level of awareness of sex-role issues

Learning Strategy Terms

Roman numerals = goals
Capital letters = objectives
Arabic numerals = learning strategies

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PREFACE

A federally funded two-year project to reduce sex-role stereotyping in career options at all educational levels, BORN FREE represents the work, involvement, and commitment of a great number of people. It has been a shared effort of about 100 dedicated University and field-site staff members working part time in their own institutions. First-year focus was primarily on materials development, with the second year devoted to completing field-testing, and revising the materials, with each of 14 BORN FREE teams carrying out an implementation plan in their own institution in Minnesota.

Three training packets and nine color videotapes have been developed over the past two years to increase the awareness of teachers, counselors, administrators, and parents of the ways in which they consciously and unconsciously inhibit or facilitate career options for children, youth, and adults. These print and videotape materials are intended to be used in in-service workshops and staff development programs at elementary, secondary, and postsecondary/higher education levels. Combined with a number of content and process reports, they represent an attempt to provide a set of multimedia materials based on a theoretical framework of career development, collaborative consultation, and change process. They also reflect a field-test design in which the materials were tried out in participating schools and colleges and subsequently revised based on the feedback received. Many of these materials have been a part of the implementation plans of the schools and colleges involved. These are K-12 school districts of White Bear Lake, Hopkins, and St. Paul; 916 Vocational-Technical Institute and Lakewood Community College in White Bear Lake; Normandale Community College in Bloomington; Augsburg College in Minneapolis; and the College of Liberal Arts Career Planning Office of the University of Minnesota. The project is housed in the Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology (CSPP) Program of the College of Education, University of Minnesota.

The three packets have gone through considerable development. First, objectives related to the career development conceptual framework were identified, with teams creating learning activities linked to them. These strategies were first field-tested in the 1977 BORN FREE Summer Institute, followed by extensive field-testing and revision the second year. They were further field-tested in the 1978 BORN FREE National Institute. Attempts have been made to integrate the various parts of the project into these packets--the career development framework, the sex-role socialization literature review, the nine videotapes, and the change process evaluation model.

This packet is intended to be used primarily with educators and parents at the secondary level, but ideas can be adapted for use at other levels. Because staff members have shared their ideas freely with each other, some activities appear in more than one packet (especially the material on change process). Many of the activities in this module were created by our BORN FREE staff, with modifications made following field-test evaluation. Some have been adapted from other sources, and where this has occurred, credit is given. In a few instances, the original source was unknown and could not be traced.

Besides the print materials which have been field-tested in workshops in various educational institutions, a set of nine color video cassettes also has been developed. These are based on developmental themes drawn both from the literature review completed for the project and from the clinical observations of field-site teams in their own institutions. Because the technical production on these video cassettes was not completed in time for our field-test, extensive evaluation data are available only on Videotape No. 1, "BORN FREE: A World of Options." Learning strategies based on the tapes have been incorporated into each packet. A video viewers' guide for leaders also accompanies each tape.

The training packets are intended to stand alone but assume some knowledge of counseling, career development, sex-role socialization, and change process on the part of workshop leaders. It is expected that the materials will be most effective if used by leaders who themselves have completed some BORN FREE training. In addition, it is important that users have as part of their resources the related BORN FREE training materials. Besides the nine videotapes and viewers' guides, these include the Selected Review of the Literature on Career Development and Sex-Role Stereotyping for the particular level; the evaluation reports on the BORN FREE Summer Institutes (state--Keierleber, 1977; and national--Penn, 1978); and the change process reports, Evaluation of Educational Change Process in Project BORN FREE Institutions (Keierleber and Hansen, 1978; Krusemark, 1978) and Case Summaries of the Educational Change Process in Project BORN FREE Institutions (Keierleber, 1978). In fact, portions of the materials from these sources have been integrated into the training packets and are essential to utilizing some of the learning strategies. A complete list of these materials is printed at the end of this packet.

It would be impossible to acknowledge by name all who have made contributions to a project as huge in scope as Project BORN FREE. Thanks must be expressed, however, to the 100 University and field staff (their names are on the title page and inside back cover) who went far beyond the time allocated and literally engaged in a "labor of love" to bring the materials to completion; to the 14 institutions (also named on the back cover) and their administrators and faculty without whose cooperation this effort would not be possible; to the more than 150 individuals--teachers, professors, students, counselors, parents, administrators, others--who consented to share themselves and their ideas as part of the videotapes; and to the project assistants, administrative assistants, level coordinators, and others whose leadership has been so vital to this collaborative effort.

There are a few who deserve special mention. Much credit must be given to Gerri Perreault, who as administrative assistant and module coordinator created the "Fact Pack" and creatively assisted and persisted in bringing all the packets to completion. A special word of thanks must be expressed to Tim Hatfield, who worked on the project for two years as project assistant and consultant and contributed much both as consultant to five secondary schools and as major co-author of this revised training packet. Appreciation is expressed to Diane Johnson, whose skillful and dedicated leadership in the first year established a cohesive and productive team model. Appreciation is also expressed to Dolores Dege, who as general project assistant in the second year assisted on video scripts, coordinated the video viewers' guides and assisted in revision of the introductory material for this packet. Gerri Poppe and Kathy Kelly of White Bear Sunrise Junior High also made significant contributions. Among field-site staff, Pat Olsson was especially creative in developing learning strategies, particularly guidelines for an implementation plan. Administrators who have especially facilitated BORN FREE in their districts are Dr. Virginia Flores, Dr. Frank Brendemuehl, Dr. Robert Ash, Dr. Judy Cooper, Dr. Tim Rummel, and Dr. Frank Rainaldi.

Besides those who actually have done the writing and other work on these packets, there are several individuals who have been working behind the scenes on other parts of the project or as support personnel. Not the least of these is Beverly Mills-Novoa, administrative assistant, who has carefully attended to communication, management, staff morale, report writing, public relations, and administrative planning in order to get the tasks done, as well as editing a high quality BORN FREE newsletter. Phyllis Kragseth, media specialist, has given much time, dedication, and talent to the monumental task of developing the nine videotapes over the two-year period and deserves special thanks. Dennis Keierleber proved to be a competent process evaluator in the first year. He provided valuable raw and interpretive data on evaluation of the 1977 Summer Institute and the process of implementing educational change. Sue Warsett, product evaluator, was persistent and thorough in evaluating the learning strategies, tapes, and packets. Fred Krusemark, who joined the staff the second year, provided valuable help on process evaluation in the field-sites, as well as in creating evaluation instruments. Phillip Penn assisted on computer analysis and had major responsibility for the evaluation report of the 1978 National Institute. Shelly Heck proved to be a versatile script assistant, photographer, and production assistant on the tapes, as well as an expert typist and organizer. Karen Nelson and Sue Johnson assisted with administrative detail in the first year.

To help with the overload of work, we were fortunate to have the supplemental help of project assistants Joan Duke, Hope Young, and Keven Murphy. We are grateful to senior secretary Linda Emery for her competent organization and management of budget and office. Special thanks are due secretaries Betty Jo Johnson, Terry Roiger, Cathy Dingley, Esther Wittenberg, and Jeanne Getty for their skillful typing of earlier drafts of this manuscript. Thanks are also due Jo Zimmar, Steno Pool, and Sue Bohnenstingel, CSPP, who facilitated the typing of a number of products. These credits would not be complete without acknowledging the fine cooperation and excellent service provided by Warren White and the University Central Duplicating staff, who came through on several tight deadlines.

Several persons outside the University staff also made helpful contributions to BORN FREE. Gloria Kumagai of the minority women's project ("Integrating Cultural Diversity into Non-Sex-Biased Curriculum) of the St. Paul schools provided suggestions for us to more adequately integrate racial, ethnic, and economic class concerns. Thanks are due the several reader-consultants who critiqued the training packet and offered constructive suggestions for revision: Dr. Gerald Brunetti, English Education, University of Minnesota; Patricia Engelhard, Counselor, Edina Public Schools; Joe Zetah, Counselor, Minneapolis Public Schools; and Dr. Peggy Hawley, Counselor Education, San Diego State University. While appreciation is expressed to all who have contributed, the views expressed are the responsibility of the authors.

We also wish to acknowledge Arnold Walker, Scott Constans, Chuck Kundschier, and the rest of the University Media Resources staff for technical production of the nine videotapes; Dr. Richard Davis and the Instructional Systems Resource Lab for technical assistance and support; Dr. Maynard Reynolds and Marilyn Gorlin of the University Psychoeduational Studies Department; the Higher Education Program and the Dean's Office, College of Education, which have provided space, facilities, and budgetary help; the Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology faculty and students for their kindness and support; and those many unnamed individuals who are committed to the goals of BORN FREE--to Build Options, Reassess Norms, and Free Roles through Educational Equity. Most of all, thanks are expressed to Dr. Joan Duval and the Women's Educational Equity Act Program (WEEAP) staff in Washington, D.C., who made this work possible. Carolyn Joyner, WEEAP's project monitor, was especially attentive to our needs.

Many persons and institutions gave us permission to use their articles or other materials in this packet. To all of them we are most grateful, for we believe the reprints make the packets richer and more self-contained.

A final comment must be made about the people who have done so much to bring the BORN FREE training packets and videotapes to closure and to begin the process of reducing the barriers to career development in educational institutions. They have done a monumental job. Due to limits of budget, the field-site staff were released only three half days per month to help develop materials and implement BORN FREE in their institutions. In the first year the University staff consisted of 17 persons, most of whom were working quarter time as project assistants, the rest of the time as full-time graduate students. In the second year the staff was reduced to 12 persons, all but the secretary employed only half time. Again the staff consisted primarily of graduate students in Counseling Psychology, Higher Education, and Speech and Communications who were concurrently taking preliminary exams, doing internships, writing theses and dissertations, and attending to the other parts of their lives. The task has not been easy. But it is a tribute to their competency, their good will, their persistence, and their dedication to the common cause of sex equity for all that they have accomplished so much in so short a time. To all of them, and especially to Beverly Mills-Novoa and Gerri Perreault, for their loyalty, selflessness, and continuing support, I wish to express a very special thank you.

BORN FREE is more than a project; it is an ideal and a process and a goal to be achieved. Among those aspects of the project we hope would be imitated are the meaningful relationships we have established between the University staff and field-site staff in cooperating institutions, as well as the formal and informal networks of BORN FREE people created through the local workshops and the National Institute. Our formal efforts are only a beginning; those who use these materials and attempt to make changes in their attitudes and practices as educators or in their behavior as parents are the ones who will really determine whether boys and girls, women and men eventually will be able to choose more freely from an expanded range of career options as a result of Project BORN FREE.

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I. WHAT IS PROJECT BORN FREE?

Project BORN FREE is a training and development program, funded under the Women's Educational Equity Act, U.S. Office of Education, designed to reduce stereotyping which limits career decisions for boys and girls, women and men. It is a multidimensional effort to intervene in educational institutions to help reduce career-related sex-role stereotyping and expand career options.

It is a concept based on the idea that both women and men face barriers in their career development because of stereotypic attitudes about sex roles.

It is a process of helping faculties in educational institutions engage in self-examination and identification of the best strategies to achieve BORN FREE goals.

Project BORN FREE represents the work and commitment of many people. Although housed at the University of Minnesota, it is truly a collaborative effort of nearly one hundred staff members, consisting of project staff at the University (external consultants) and field-site staff (internal consultants) working in fourteen separate educational institutions from kindergarten through postsecondary/higher education (see inside back cover for names of participating individuals and institutions).

Through cooperative staff efforts, a set of materials has been developed for use in in-service workshops and in staff development programs at elementary, secondary, and postsecondary/higher education levels, and for adaptation to classroom use. By making teachers, professors, counselors, administrators, and parents more aware of the ways in which they consciously and unconsciously inhibit and/or facilitate career decisions of youth and adults, it is expected that educational systems will be more supportive of expanded options based on individual needs and talents.

The shortened title of the project, BORN FREE, is an acronym which expresses exactly what the project is about: to Build Options, Reassess Norms, and Free Roles through Educational Equity.

BORN FREE is unique in that it is built on both a content and a process theoretical framework. The materials are based on the Minnesota Career Development Curriculum (the CDC), which defines career as a continuous, lifelong, person-centered process of developmental experiences. The concept focuses on self-direction in educational/vocational/lifestyle options and includes not only the work role, but the integration of work roles with other life roles. It assumes that individuals make decisions about work and family over the entire life span (Tennyson, Hansen, Klaurens, and Antholz, 1975).

The materials are based, also, on a belief that educators and parents can engage in strategies and interventions which will help girls and boys, men and women have a wider variety of life career options. Two major models of change have contributed to this belief: The Change Agent's Guide to Innovation in Education (Havelock, 1973), and the Rand Corporation model for evaluating change process in federally funded innovative programs (Mann, 1976).

A hypothesis of career socialization is advanced which suggests that women and men are socialized to choose or not to choose certain educational, occupational, and lifestyle options; and that this subtle socialization process begins during the preschool years and continues into adulthood.

The University staff found ample support for this hypothesis through an extensive review of literature for three educational levels (see "Summary of Literature Review" section) and through "systems diagnoses" or analyses of each participating institution. Field-site staff at each building site provided additional evidence of the need for Project BORN FREE through clinical observations and needs assessments. Development teams sought to identify what seemed to be the most cogent evidence of results of career-related sex-role stereotyping in educational institutions.

Results of the literature review and the institutional analyses became the data base for the development of training materials. Thus, the materials are based upon (1) a theoretical concept of career development, (2) a collaborative model of university-practitioner consultation, and (3) a change-process model of systems intervention.

The results of the three literature reviews are available from Project BORN FREE, along with the set of three training packets of learning strategies for intervention at elementary, secondary, and postsecondary/higher education levels. A set of nine half-hour color videotapes and other related printed materials will also be disseminated (see "BORN FREE Products and Publications" section). The videotapes can be used in conjunction with the training packets to expand the audience's awareness of career inhibitors and facilitators through interviews with a wide variety of individuals, representing many different lifestyles and careers. Learning strategies using the videotapes have been included in the packets. The video viewers' guides will aid workshop leaders in using the tapes and provide questions for discussion.

II. WHAT ARE THE TRAINING PACKETS?

Three packets are available, for use in elementary, secondary, and postsecondary settings. Each packet is a set of independent learning strategies which combine to provide an intervention model appropriate for use with educators and parents at each level. The strategies may be used individually, or parts of the total packet may be used as the format for a workshop or an intervention process. Some strategies are included in more than one packet, because they are appropriate for more than one developmental level.

Each packet is structured by utilizing a set of general goals which were developed from the career development conceptual model, the review of literature, and the needs assessments for that developmental level. Subordinate to each goal are sets of objectives designed to implement different aspects of the goal and learning strategies to carry out the objectives. In certain instances, a stragegy has gone through so many modifications over time that the original source is unknown.

Workshop leaders will select strategies appropriate to their audience and their workshop goals. For a two-hour workshop, strategies designed to increase awareness of limits on career choices would be appropriate. Longer workshops might attempt to change behaviors and attitudes and/or to create and implement change in the participants' home institutions. The strategies may be used individually or in combination, to fulfill whatever objectives are deemed essential for the particular target population. It is hoped that they will be used in one, two, or three-day workshops and/or in five to ten-week in-service courses, for college credit and for personal growth.

III. HOW DO THE PACKETS WORK?

Code System

Workshop audiences vary on many dimensions, and it is important to have a proper match between the target audience and the learning strategy. For that reason, we have rated the strategies along four important dimensions: (1) parent or educator appropriateness, (2) trust level, (3) career development awareness, and (4) sex-role awareness. Note: A code system notation is located in the upper left corner of each strategy. For your convenience, a summary of the code meanings also appears on the inside of the front cover.

P/E = Parent/Educator Appropriateness. These designations are based upon the field-testing which indicated that some strategies are more effective with one group than the other and upon the judgment of the authors. The designations are only suggestions. Actual use with any group would be at the discretion of the leaders, based upon their analysis of the specific audience.

P = especially effective with parent groups
E = especially effective with educators
P-E = equally effective with either group.

TL = Level of Group Trust Required. The learning strategies require varying levels of personal involvement and self-disclosure. The strategies range from those that can be used with a group that has a fairly low level of openness and trust to those strategies which expect the group to have a high degree of group trust, openness, and willingness to share.

TL-L = strategy can be used with a group that has a low trust level
TL-M = group needs to have a medium trust level
TL-H = group needs to have a high trust level

CD = Level of Awareness of Career Development Concepts and Issues. Many of the strategies can be used with people who have a limited background in career development. A basic awareness of the Career Development Curriculum (CDC) model is considered a prerequisite for all workshop leaders as background perspective. Creating awareness of ways in which career options are limited by sex-role socialization is the goal of the packets at every level. Increasing knowledge of ways to facilitate expanded career options is another goal. Audiences need to be aware that career development is a lifelong process instead of a one-time choice. Career options are influenced at every stage of a person's development at home, in school, and at work.

Workshop leaders should make a special effort to be aware of restraints on career development due to race, economic class, age, and physical or mental disability. The authors have tried to integrate the concerns into the learning strategies but believe that workshop leaders might need to be reminded to be aware of the conditions and experiences of people different from themselves. Workshop leaders should also be aware that a person's particular family history may make her/him less willing to talk about his/her own career development and career history.

CD-L = strategy can be used with a group with a low level of awareness of career development concepts and issues
CD-M = group needs a medium level of career development awareness
CD-H = group needs a high level of career development awareness

SR = Level of Awareness of Sex-Role Issues. People vary widely in their perceptions of and attitudes toward sex bias in our culture. What one person perceives as sex-role bias may be defined differently by another, and what may be very controversial to one group may be quite basic to another. Although the strategies have been rated on low, medium, and high awareness levels, it is important that the leaders be sensitive to the needs of each particular group. If a group has a particularly low level of awareness and trust, even the strategies designated as "low threat" may be very risky to that group. In general, most of the materials and the general approach of BORN FREE are considered to be low key and moderate in their approach to sex-role issues. Groups highly sophisticated in sex-role issues might find the packets at a level below their awareness.

SR-L = strategy can be used with a group that has a low level of awareness of sex-role issues
SR-M = group needs a medium level of awareness of sex-role issues
SR-H = group needs a high level of awareness of sex-role issues

Learning Strategy Terms

The packets use a code to explain the terms used in each learning strategy. Roman numerals indicate the goals, capital letters indicate the objectives, and arabic numerals indicate the learning strategies, in an ordinal fashion. Therefore, VI.B.3. means the sixth goal, the second objective under that goal, and the third strategy which can be used to achieve that objective. This code is further explained below.

Goal. In general, a goal means the end purpose, or the achievement toward which the effort is directed. The term is used extensively throughout the packets to designate the broad significant outcomes expected from the strategies. Each goal may have several objectives.

Objective. The specific outcomes or overt changes that are expected to result from participation in the learning activities are called the objectives.

They tell explicitly what the learners will be doing when they display their learned skills, concepts, habits, and attitudes. An objective may be included under more than one goal.

Learning Strategy. This term is used to refer to the entire individual unit of learning which consists of the goal, the objective, and the specific activity designed to achieve the goal and objective. It also refers to the set of procedures within each particular learning strategy.

Time Required. The minimum amount of time needed for completion of the specific strategy is given. Time requirements vary between individual strategies and according to the specific application. If used as a complete package, each packet would require at least sixty hours for completion.

Resources Needed. This section lists materials the workshop leaders will use to implement the learning strategies. Handouts to be used by all participants in the strategy are reprinted for duplication and use by workshop leaders. Attached articles are included for the workshop leaders' background information and sometimes for the participants' use. Other background references helpful to the workshop leaders are cited.

Outcome Criteria. These offer potential standards by which workshop leaders can evaluate whether the learning strategies' objectives have been met. Many workshop leaders have found it effective to require journal writing by participants when a sequence of strategies is used. When a strategy's outcome criterion mentions "reflecting in journals," it is referring to that sort of journal writing in an ongoing workshop.

IV. WHO CAN USE THE BORN FREE MATERIALS? SOME CRITICAL ASSUMPTIONS

In developing these training materials, staff made some critical assumptions about their use. The first assumption is that BORN FREE workshop leaders will use their knowledge about their target populations and choose strategies accordingly (see "How Do the Packets Work" and "Intended Audience" sections).

The second assumption is that workshop teams will consist of both a male and a female leader (see "Workshop Leaders" section).

The third assumption is that workshop leaders will have communication skills, counseling skills, and group process skills which will enable them to facilitate harmonious interaction within their workshop groups (see "Group Process" section).

The fourth assumption is that workshop leaders will have some knowledge of change process, i.e., how to bring about change in systems, how to integrate planned change into the content area of career development and sex-role stereotyping, and how to deal with resistance in groups and in systems (see "Change Process" section).

The fifth assumption, which is reflected in the designated outcome criteria for the learning strategies contained in this BORN FREE training packet, is that leaders will need to evaluate their use of these materials (see "Measuring Results" section).

These assumptions are critical to achieving success with BORN FREE materials. Though it is not expected that one workshop leader will have all the requisite skills and experience, it is expected that workshops will be planned as team efforts, and that appropriate leaders will be selected so their strengths and weaknesses balance each other.

The Intended Audience

It is intended that these learning packets be used primarily with parents, counselors, instructors, and administrators in educational settings. The materials can be used in training sessions or workshops with a wide range of settings and populations. Some suggested educational uses are: college faculty; departmental office staffs; student activity advisers; residence-hall counselors; academic advisers; college counselors and student personnel workers; school resource and guidance staffs (e.g., counselors, SLBP teachers, nurses, and speech therapists); subject departments within schools and within school districts; parent workshops sponsored by PTA or at school-sponsored parent nights; administrator workshops; and school board workshops.

Although the learning packets were not developed for students as a target population, some of the learning strategies may be adapted for use in the classroom. The strategies in the elementary and secondary education packets can be modified to use with students. In addition, both packets contain lists of practical resources in which student-oriented activities may be found. The materials in the postsecondary/higher education packet can be used with students at that level with little modification.

The packets are intended to raise personal awareness and to provide intervention strategies at three broad educational levels. It is important, also, to consider the unique characteristics of each target population and to select strategies most appropriate for the particular group. A brief discussion of considerations for some specified educational groups follows:

Teachers. Learning activities exphasizing curriculum, analysis of texts and materials, influence of books and media, career development concepts and methods, and personal awareness (for both students and adults) might be used. Teachers often are especially interested in practical "how to" materials which they can adapt for use in their classrooms.

Counselors. Learning strategies which emphasize affect, self-concept, personal awareness (for both students and adults), change process, guidance materials, and career development concepts, programs, and methods would be appropriate. Counselors need to be encouraged to provide leadership in the creation and implementation of comprehensive career development education programs. Counselors especially need to be exposed to materials which might help them become aware of their own sex biases in career counseling. They need assistance in identifying sex bias in guidance materials (tests, inventories, student records, career guidance resources, guidance kits, films, tapes, etc.).

Administrators. Learning strategies which stress individual career development, staff development, career development concepts and programs, the legal implications of sex discrimination and bias, cognitive information, documentation of the need for attention to career options and sex-roles, program development, educational and occupational opportunity, the change process, and ways of dealing with staff resistance might be used.

Professors. Professors may need to be convinced that there is a problem and that they consciously and unconsciously limit career options of students in higher education settings. Because college and university faculty tend to value cognitive and intellectual pursuits, presentation of the evidence on sex-role stereotyping and career decision making of college students may be the most effective strategy to use. The findings of Project BORN FREE's post-secondary/higher education literature review provide convincing data on direct and subtle discrimination in college settings and the need for change. The best evidence available, supported by theory and research, should be presented to higher education faculty members. They may also respond to selected videotapes.

Parents. With parents, learning strategies could be used that stress personal awareness, past socialization to choose or not choose certain career options, and ways in which parents and other family members facilitate or inhibit career development of their children. The most relevant strategies would be those that help parents examine their own behaviors and attitudes in child-rearing practices, including family rules regarding watching television and using other media. Differences in attitudes and expectations which result from membership in minority cultures should be considered and discussed. The consequences of the acknowledged developmental stereotyping on children's opportunities and on their ultimate choices need to be stressed and documented. Parents need to become aware of the conscious and unconscious messages they give their children about what they can or cannot do. They need some examples of attitudes and behaviors which expand rather than limit career options. They also need to learn effective ways to have an impact on their children's educational institutions.

The materials may seem to be more oriented to educators than to parents. However, most of the activities are adaptable for adults in general and for a variety of parent groups. The workshop leaders can assess the awareness level of the parents in the group and choose appropriate strategies.

The Extended Audience

The BORN FREE training materials could be adapted for many other uses, in addition to educational purposes. Community agencies, mental health centers, state department personnel, community education programs, business and/or industrial personnel education and training programs, and career-planning programs could adapt the BORN FREE materials for their use.

The BORN FREE staff concentrated their efforts on sex-role stereotyping but tried to include, where possible, references to other kinds of stereotyping that limit career decisions. Race, age, physical or mental handicap, marital status, socioeconomic class, and affectional/sexual preference are some of the stereotypes sometimes used to limit career options. It is intended that the materials can be adapted to combat these and other stereotypes which limit choices for men and women, girls and boys.

V. WORKSHOP LEADERS

During the development of the BORN FREE materials, and later during the field-testing, leadership teams composed of a man and a woman were found to be the most effective. This model reinforces the idea that the Project is concerned about career options for both women and men. It gives the leadership team an opportunity to model some of the behaviors and attitudes they expect from workshop participants.

In addition to the favorable influence of having a male/female leadership team, there are other factors which affect the success of a workshop. Openness to any and all contributions from members of the group and avoidance of the tendency to evaluate the contributions will increase disclosure and trust. Leaders should be aware of and in control of their own hidden biases and should avoid using "red flag" words that might trigger unwanted responses from the audience.

Anxiety about performance will limit the leadership resources. Confidence in BORN FREE materials and in the team's own leadership abilities will improve the workshop. More important than what is said is the interaction with the group. Guide--don't direct. Adjust--don't anticipate. Personalize--don't distance. React to the moment, instead of trying to fulfill a preconceived script, to increase flexibility and effectiveness.

VI. GROUP PROCESS

The following behaviors and skills are important ones for group facilitators to have. While this is not intended as an exhaustive list, it mentions a number of important group process issues which must be addressed in conjunction with the content issues stimulated by the strategies. Both process and content must be considered by the leaders throughout the workshop or presentation.

To enhance the desired interaction between group members during the strategy, the workshop leaders should:

1. Model direct communication
    a. express selves clearly and concisely
    b. listen attentively
    c. attend nonverbally to group members (e.g., maintain eye contact)
    d. give direct feedback
    e. make "I" statements which reflect statement ownership

2. Facilitate interaction among group members
    a. help maintain focus of the conversation by making appropriate interventions
    b. clarify and summarize

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  c. redirect comments to group members
  d. reinforce desired behaviors

3. Attend to different levels of group process

  a. overall group-level issues (entire group)
  b. interpersonal issues (two or more persons)
  c. individual issues (one person)
    - observe and interpret
    - clarify goals

Because of the personal nature of some of the BORN FREE material, some thought as to the most relaxing method of presentation will help to promote discussion. A "small-group" atmosphere is possible, even with large numbers of people, if the participants are encouraged to discuss issues in groups of six to ten. The arrangement of chairs in circular rather than straight rows, plus an invitation to move closer to the front of the room rather than sit scattered about a large space, will facilitate interaction.

Familiarity with the techniques used in the strategies is essential for effective presentation. Some of the most commonly used techniques are described here:

Small-Group Discussion

Breaking a group of participants into small groups of five to eight persons to discuss the topic will enable all members to actively participate in the dialog. When a topic is stressful, small-group discussion will enhance disclosure from members who might not talk in the large group atmosphere. Depending upon the purpose of the group and the skills of its members, the leaders may assign discussion leaders to each small group, ask each group to choose a facilitator from within the small group, or leave the group unstructured.

Reporting

When discussion groups meet to process the activity or to devise lists of experiences or information, it is helpful to have one person act as "scribe" to record all the information produced in the group, and to report back to the large group a synthesis of the small-group information. After reporting, the scribe may wish to ask for additions or revisions to the report from other small-group members.

Fishbowl

This involves having two to eight members of a larger group work together to model an activity or to work through an issue. The small group sits together in the center of the room, and members of the larger group sit around them on all sides, observing the interaction. After a predetermined amount of time has passed, the activity is discontinued, and the large group discusses what they observed happening in the interaction. The process can be repeated until all participants have been in the center.

Role Playing

Sometimes the most effective way to predict what will happen in a situation is to actually pretend it is happening, acting it out as though it were the actual event. In a role-play situation, members of the group take the parts of the people involved in the expected interaction, and the rest of the group become the audience, watching the role play and critiquing the action afterward. Doing the role play will increase understanding of new skills, give practice in interpersonal interaction, and reduce apprehension about the actual event.

When using a role-play situation in the workshop, the team leaders should:

1. Set the scene properly, with adequate description of the situation.
2. Be sure each role player understands the role he/she is to play.
3. Be sure that the players know that there is a time limit and that the scene will be cut off even though it might not be completed.

The object is to learn skills, rather than to settle issues. The scene should run long enough to supply data for discussion, but not long enough to run to its logical conclusion.

Members of the group can be working on a real issue or on a hypothetical one. They may take roles that they will actually have in some future interaction or they may take imaginary roles in an imaginary interaction that will help teach a desired skill. The dialog will be impromptu, although it may at times seem very real.

When the scene is ended, let the role players be the first to react to their experience. Then, ask the entire audience to describe what they saw happening, how it might have been different, and how they felt about it.

Brainstorming

This is a technique that is used to bring out new ideas from a group. It merely means that the members of a group randomly suggest ideas, and one member acts as scribe, writing the ideas down as they are suggested. The ground rules are that anything that is said is written down, no matter how crazy or unworkable it might be, and no criticism of ideas is allowed.

As the ideas are verbalized, they may not be challenged or restricted. They will be built upon, as other members of the group pick up the ideas they hear and think of things to say that relate to what has been said before.

It is important that the members of the group realize that they are not to criticize what is being suggested. The purpose is creativity of thought, and after the group has run out of ideas, or after a predetermined time has elapsed, the group can cull the ideas for the best ones. During the brainstorming session, no rejection of ideas is allowed.

In conducting a brainstorming session, the team leaders should:

1. Be sure the group understands the topic they are to brainstorm.
2. Be sure someone is planning to write things down.
3. Be sure the members understand that there will be no criticism of ideas. If anyone starts a debate during the session, cut it off.
4. Encourage the free flow of divergent ideas.
5. Keep the group on topic, and end it at the appropriate time.

Summarizing

When the group reaches a pivot point in the experience, such as a new activity within a strategy, completion of a strategy, or a coffee or lunch break, it is important to recap what has happened. This summary bu the workshop leaders serves to refresh the memory of the members, to structure the learning process, to point out subtle meanings, and to tie the whole process to the goals of the individual learning strategies and/or of the workshop. The summary is a short but effective technique for enhancing understanding and maintaining group process.

Journal Writing

This refers to the assignment of journal writing to participants in ongoing workshops. Self-awareness is engendered by having the participants write down what they have perceived happening to themselves and to others during an activity, and how they felt about it. In the learning strategies, journal writing is sometimes indicated under "Outcome Criteria" by the incomplete sentence, "I learned that . . ."

VII. CHANGE PROCESS

An integral part of BORN FREE is emphasis on process as well as content. Part of the training packet focuses on bringing about change in educational institutions. The goal of the materials is to help make the leaders and the participants effective change agents, in order to reduce sex-role stereotyping in their institutions.

Those trying to effect change need to be able to analyze their own institutions if they are to change them. Critical factors in this analysis are their own roles within the system, the communication patterns which exist, administrative support, the formal and informal power structure, the support groups, the level of commitment, the decision-making style, and the climate for change in the area of career-related sex-role stereotyping. They also need to be able to anticipate resistance and the forms it will take, and learn strategies for dealing with resistance.

Change agents will need to combine change process skills with content skills, using counseling, consultation, and communication skills to build good relationships with those who are willing to work for change. The need to provide reinforcement and rewards is great. One of the basic questions in Project BORN FREE is how to bring about enduring change in educational institutions.

People have varying attitudes toward change and the need for it. There is a tendency to preserve the status quo. One of the motivations for change in attitudes toward career options and sex roles is the personal growth that can be experienced by participants. Most people accept the basic goal of education in our society--to promote the maximum development of each individual. While legal mandates such as Title IX give strength to such arguments, many individuals prefer the human development approach of BORN FREE as a basis for attitude and behavior change.

Guidelines for Systems Change

Useful references for those who wish to know more about change process include Havelock's The Change Agent's Guide to Innovation in Education (1973), Blocher's "A Systematic Eclectic Approach to Consultation" (1975), and Dworkin and Walz's "An Evaluation Model for Guidance" (1971). The chart on pages 13-14, "Guidelines for Systems Change in Career Development Programs," presents three ways of looking at change process in career development programs.

Dealing with Resistance

As workshop leaders attempt to use these module activities, a major variable to consider is the receptivity of the target population. Sex-role stereotyping is a threatening topic to many people because of either negative past experiences or lack of exposure to the issues involved. If the target population consists of voluntary and open participants, minimal difficulty can be expected. However, if participation is involuntary and the participants lack openness to the ideas presented, a large amount of resistance may need to be dealt with. Sometimes a choice of words or language can increase or decrease the amount of resistance. BORN FREE has deliberately tried to avoid inflammatory or "red flag" language. While some individuals unfortunately react negatively to labels of affirmative action, Title IX, or sexism, the human development emphasis of BORN FREE may be more palatable. In general, phrases such as "expanding career options" are more positive than "eliminating sex bias." Terms such as "sex-fair teaching" and "sex-fair counseling" or "promoting sex equality" may be less emotion-laden than "reducing sexism." Stressing the sex-role stereotyping of both women and men also affirms the human development emphasis of Project BORN FREE.

Resistance can take many forms in a group. For example, a few participants may attempt to sabotage the leaders' efforts by making irrelevant or disparaging comments about the exercises or about other participants. Even a few such people may cause the atmosphere of an entire session to be filled with negativism. A vocal few can create a tone which influences the rest in a negative way. Resistance of this type may be expected in many of the situations in which these activities are used and will vary according to

GUIDELINES FOR SYSTEMS CHANGE IN CAREER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

1 Systems Guidelines*	2 Content Evaluation (Task)**	3 Change Process Strategies (Maintenance)***
Build a relationship with the system (internal or external consultant); analyze your position in the system. Diagnose the system --reassessment (needs or cause of problem; why system needs changing). Provide a strategy (potential solution to meet need). Have a specific plan. Analyze resources--existing and needed human and nonhuman resources (financial, physical, other). Implement the strategy. Assess the effectiveness of the strategy. How do you account for the change? How do you document the change?	Analyze the population: What is target population? For whom is program intended (counselors, parents, teachers)? What are their needs? Analyze the setting: In what kind of setting or environment is the program to operate? Analyze the community: What are the relevant needs and characteristics of the larger community in which the setting is located (parent values, business-industry opportunities, etc.)? Other agencies involved? Analyze the objectives: What are the objectives of your intervention or program, stated specifically and behaviorally? Identify the methods: What methods, media, and materials will you use for developing and implementing your program?	Be open, competent, responsible, and available. Build a support group of people who: - are trusted, open, competent; - have some power or status with the systems - are risk takers or innovators; and - communicate well with others. Choose a strategy for change which is reasonable, feasible (not too big or a change too fast). Choose an innovation that will not be too threatening to too many. Anticipate resistance and the forms it will take (apathy, hostility). Choose a strategy that has a good chance of suceeding--success breeds success. Build a communication system in a variety of ways--person-to-person, coffee chats, feedback mechanisms.

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*Systems Guidelines adapted from R.G. Havelock, The Change Agents' Guide to Innovation in Education (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Educational Technology Publications, 1973).

**Content Evaluation adapted from Ed Dworkin and Garry Walz, "An Evaluation Model for Guidance," in D. Cook, Guidance for Education in Revolution (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971).

***Change Process Strageties adapted from Alan Anderson, "Rules for an Internal Consultant" (University of Minnesota: College of Education, undated mimeo).

GUIDELINES FOR SYSTEMS CHANGE IN CAREER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS (cont.)

1 Systems Guidelines*	2 Content Evaluation (Task)**	3 Change Process Strategies (Maintenance)***
Provide for feedback into decision making, improvement, and redesign of plan for innovation. Provide for dissemination of results.	Analyze the outcome: To what extent has each objective been achieved (process)? To what extent have your overall performance objectives been achieved (product)?	Seek both internal and external support (administrators, parents, students, faculty council) and obtain public commitment. Have alternative or back-up strategies and be prepared to negotiate. Provide incentives and rewards for participation. Constantly evaluate the process.

differences in socioeconomic class, minority membership, and other such factors which affect the basic belief structure of the target population. The importance of effective group process skills becomes apparent in these highly sensitive situations.

In most cases, a group that is resistant to positive participation can be transformed so that the experience can be beneficial and growth-producing to all involved persons. In dealing with resistance in groups, the leaders can:

1. Try to reflect the resistant members' views and comments. That is, try to summarize and clarify the feelings of the resistant members involved in an active way. Through use of this technique, the resistant members will be more open because they know they have been heard. The trust level of the group may rise so you can effectively deal with the divergent points of view. Reflection will insure that all positions of the resistance are clarified so you won't be victimized by the presence of "hidden agendas." This is consistent with BORN FREE goals to help individuals respect and understand diverse positions and points of view.

2. Facilitate the expression of responses by all group members to the resistance encountered. Accompanying resistance within a group are usually some forms of interpersonal and intellectual hostility. The conflicts should be clarified and resolved to achieve the critical openness necessary for successful learning experiences in the group.

3. Have participants present alternative procedures and opinions about how to deal with the resistance issue. By getting the input of members (especially resistant ones) within a reasonable framework, their personal "investment" in the group experience will increase the possibility of a positive group outcome.

4. Use the resistant views to the advantage of all participants by structuring the conflict as a learning experience. It is possible that participants may learn and grow the most where conflict and opposition are present. In many cases, the resistance encountered in any workshop setting will be similar to the kind present elsewhere. Utilizing the conflict as a facilitative event for change agents can be especially valuable.

While resistance can be expected in some training situations, it should not be allowed to ruin the activity. In the institution itself, as in the training setting, there may be forces at work which impede progress in achieving BORN FREE goals. Among the forms of resistance pointed out by Watson many years ago are vested interests (social and economic); the concern that one not touch sacrosanct areas (such as sex roles or sex education); concern that change in one part of the system affects other parts; conformity to norms; and rejection of outsiders.

Ways for reducing resistance also identified by Watson include the following:*

1. Use internal change agents (internal consultants) who have internal support and are committed to the project goals.

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*Adapted from Goodwin Watson, 1967.

2. Introduce change which will reduce rather than add burdens to often overworked staff.

3. Provide interesting new experiences for those participating in the change or innovation.

4. Introduce change which is reasonably in accord with accepted values (not too far ahead of target group).

5. Make sure change does not threaten individual autonomy.

6. Use participant diagnosis or internal involvement in needs assessment.

7. Try to achieve a consensual decision process (so that people have a voice in changes which will affect them).

8. Show empathy for opponents of change.

9. Demonstrate support, acceptance of, and rewards for participants.

10. Provide for communication and feedback to prevent misunderstanding.

11. Indicate openness to revision, reconsideration, and adaptation.

12. Stress a future rather than past orientation.

VIII. MEASURING RESULTS

Obviously, how leaders evaluate these learning strategies will depend on their available resources, the objective of the activity, and the purpose or questions they want to explore by the evaluation. Two of the most common purposes or strategies for evaluation will be briefly reviewed below. Following these two discussions, a continuum of possible evaluation methods will be briefly described. While these discussions on evaluation are not intended to exhaust all possible evaluation strategies and methods, it is hoped that they will provide a starting point from which to proceed.

How Much Was Learned?

Perhaps the most common purpose for evaluation is to determine whether or not the objectives of a particular learning activity have been met, and to what degree, by whom. This evaluation approach looks exclusively at the learner or trainee rather than at the learning activity. It seeks to identify whether or not the learner/trainee has acquired the knowledge, skills, attitudes, or values which the learning activity was expected to impart. A problem frequently encountered with this form of evaluation is that objectives are not stated very clearly, nor are they linked with measurable outcome criteria which specify expected standards for successful completion. Another difficulty with evaluation that looks only at accomplishment of objectives is that unexpected side effects (positive and negative) are often overlooked. In some cases, the unexpected side effects are much more important than the stated objectives. Therefore, leaders should probably not limit themselves to just measuring accomplishment of stated objectives but should attempt to identify other unexpected outcomes of the learning activity.

How Good Was the Activity?

A second purpose for evaluation is to examine or critique the learning activity rather than the competencies of the learners/trainees. This evaluation approach seeks to identify the strengths and weaknesses of both the content and process of the learning activity and thus can provide valuable information for planning future learning activities. The principal drawback in using this method of evaluation in lieu of the first one described is that it provides no direct information on the outcomes (expected or unexpected) of the learning activity. However, when this second evaluation is used in conjunction with the first, it has the potential for explaining why certain objectives were or were not met and why certain unexpected outcomes occurred.

Alternative Evaluation Methods

A continuum of methods exists for evaluating learning activities and their outcomes. At one end of the continuum is the post hoc armchair evaluation by the trainer. At the other end is the elaborate experimental design using standardized pre- and posttests with control groups. In between these two extremes is a variety of evaluation methods which can be employed. Listed below are several evaluation methods which might be considered in planning an evaluation:

1. Continuously solicit evaluative comments by learners/trainees.
2. Have learners/trainees complete self- or peer-evaluations.
3. Have learners/trainees complete formal evaluations of the learning activity.
4. Have learners/trainees complete attitude/value questionnaires.
5. Have learners/trainees complete standardized or homemade knowledge/skills tests.
6. Have learners/trainees complete simulation exercises.
7. Have external person observe and critique learning experience.
8. Observe learner/trainee behavior (verbal and/or nonverbal) outside the learning experience.

It should be noted that there are several evaluation reports available as part of Project BORN FREE. For helpful process and product information, sample evaluation forms, and details of the project evaluation, readers are referred to BORN FREE Technical Reports 4, 5, 6, and 7, as well as final reports completed at the end of the second year of the project. (See "BORN FREE Products and Publications.") Two sample evaluation forms follow, one for evaluating learning strategies, one for a workshop.

Project BORN FREE
LEARNING STRATEGY RATING FORM

code ________________

Packet Level (circle) Elementary Secondary Postsecondary/Higher

Learning Strategy (Name & Number) ______________________________

Name of Rate (Optional) ______________________________

School ______________________________

Consultant ______________________________

Position (circle) Teacher Counselor Administrator Parent Other

Level at which you work (circle) Elementary Secondary Postsecondary Other

Age (circle) under 25 26-35 36-45 46-55 55+

Are you a parent? (circle) Yes No

Sex (circle) Male Female

	Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. The objective is clear.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The directions are clear.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The learning strategy is appropriate for achieving the objective.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The amount of time allotted is adequate for the strategy.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The resources listed are adequate.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The criteria at the end adequately indicate that the objective has been met.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The strategy is appropriate for its intended educational level.	1	2	3	4	5
8. It is likely that you would use this strategy in your institution.	1	2	3	4	5

9. How would you rate the strategy overall (circle your rating)?

excellent very good good fair poor

10. Please comment briefly below on any items you rated agree. What changes, if any, would you recommend to improve this strategy if you were using it?

11. What are the major strengths of the strategy?

12. What are the major weaknesses of the strategy?

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Project BORN FREE
WORKSHOP EVALUATION FORM

Date ____________________

Institution ____________________________

Name ____________________________________ (optional)

If educator (circle) Teacher Counselor Administrator Other ________

(circle) Elementary Secondary Postsecondary/Higher Education

Sex (circle) Female Male Parent (circle) Yes No

Student (circle) Yes No Grade Level ____________

Age (circle) Under 18 18-22 23-29 30-32 33-39 40-45 46-55 56+

Please circle only one number per question unless otherwise indicated.

1. I have had training, course work, or experience where I have learned the concepts of career development education.

   none at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 quite a lot

2. I feel that sex-role stereotyping limits career options for both men and women.

   not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 extremely

3. The workshop site was appealing, attractive, and well located. I felt comfortable in these surroundings.

   quite poor 1 2 3 4 5 6 superior

4. The workshop was well organized (i.e., agenda, activities, presentations, time, breaks, etc.).

   very poorly 1 2 3 4 5 6 extremely well organized

5. The goals of this workshop were very clear.

   not clear at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 extremely clear

6. In my opinion, the overall goals of the workshop were accomplished, and this workshop met my expectations.

   no goals accomplished 1 2 3 4 5 6 all goals fully accomplished

7. In general, I felt that the workshop climate was open and trusting, and that information flowed freely among the participants.

   almost never 1 2 3 4 5 6 almost always

8. I felt that when I had a contribution to make, I had an opportunity to make it.

   almost never 1 2 3 4 5 6 almost always

9. I felt that the content and activities were interesting.

   almost never 1 2 3 4 5 6 almost always

10. The presenters were knowledgeable and competent.

   not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 superior

11. The presenters were warm and communicative.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 extremely so

12. Please rate the following if appropriate.

	very poor					extremely well done
main presentation/lecture	1	2	3	4	5	6
group exercises (learning strategies)	1	2	3	4	5	6
videotape sessions	1	2	3	4	5	6
small=group discussions	1	2	3	4	5	6
films, tapes, and other media	1	2	3	4	5	6
informal individual or group discussion	1	2	3	4	5	6
coffee breaks, lunch/dinner	1	2	3	4	5	6
panel discussions or other activities	1	2	3	4	5	6
time allotted each was appropriate	1	2	3	4	5	6

13. Please rank the following in terms of its overall importance to accomplishing the goals of this workshop. Rank only activities used in this workshop (1=highest, 8=lowest).

____main presentation/lecture
____group exercises (learning strategies)
____videotape sessions
____small-group discussions
____films, tapes, and other media
____informal individual or group discussion
____coffee breaks, lunch or dinner
____panel discussions and other activities

14. I feel free to call upon the Project BORN FREE staff in my institution for assistance, resources, or general follow-up.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 strongly agree

15. I accepted the goals of this workshop.

did not accept 1 2 3 4 5 6 fully accepted

16. Even though I may have accepted the goals, values, or concepts of the BORN FREE Project at an intellectual level, I probably won't try to implement changes in my institution.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 strongly agree

17. This workshop will probably have a significant impact on my attitudes or behaviors.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 strongly agree

18. For me, the most important aspect of the workshop was:

19. The one thing about this workshop that troubled me and was the least satisfying was:

20. Workshop evaluation forms are boring and a waste of time.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 strongly agree

IX. SAMPLE WORKSHOP/COURSE DESIGNS

The following sample designs are suggested as possible ways to structure a workshop. They are adapted from actual workshops that have been successfully implemented. The authors have attempted to offer a wide variety in the sample, to show the adaptability of the BORN FREE materials.

A. SAMPLE FORMAT FOR A TWO-PART WORKSHOP FOR SECONDARY STAFF AND PARENTS*

Part I: Initial Understanding

(All-Saturday Activity for Staff and Parents)

Meeting Date:	Saturday, April, 19--
Time:	8:00 - 4:00
Location	- - - - -
In-service credit:	One (1)
Cost:	$1.50
Limit:	30 participants

Participants will be engaged in a variety of activities which are designed to enhance their personal awareness of sex-role stereotyping as related specifically to career options.

This course will provide background information on BORN FREE and a chance to informally share experiences related to sex-role stereotyping with other educators and parents.

Goal: Gain an initial understanding of the facilitating and inhibiting effects which existing stereotypes and role expectations have on career choices.

8:00 - 8:30 . . . Name tags
Career mixer

8:30 - 9:00 . . . Overview of BORN FREE
- Historical background
- Main thrust

9:00 - 10:00 . . . Career Lifeline (I.C.1.)
Objective: Examine their own sex-role socialization and explore its effects on their values, interests, present and future career choices, and preferred lifestyles.

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*Adapted from a BORN FREE workshop at Hopkins North Junior High School, Hopkins, Minnesota, 1978.

10:00 - 11:00	. . . Break
11:00 - 12:00	. . . Career Family Tree Objective: Identify a greater variety of role models available both in occupations and career patterns.
12:00 - 1:00	. . . Lunch
1:00 - 2:15	. . . Group Collage Objective: Depict cultural expectation/stereotypes for persons of each sex.
2:15 - 2:30	. . . Break
2:30 - 3:30	. . . Videotape No. 2, "Men: Choices and Changes"
3:30 - 4:00	. . . Time to reflect on the activities, personal feelings, new awareness using a list of questions as a guide. Debriefing.

Part II. Implementation of Constructive Changes

(After-School Activity for Staff Members)

Prerequisites:	Attendance at Part I, equivalent, or permission of instructors
Instruction Team:	Joe Smith, Mary Jones, Bob White, Ruth Rogers
Meeting Dates:	Thursday, April 6, 13, 20, and May 4, 19--
Time of Meetings:	3:15 - 5:15
Location:	South Junior High School

One credit toward advancement or in-service pay.

This course will provide increased awareness of areas of concern having to do with sex-role stereotyping and career options. Participants will select individual or group projects directed toward implementing a change process or innovation. The last session is two weeks after the previous session to allow for time to initiate action, and will be a report and evaluation session.

Session One:

3:15	Videotape No. 2, "Men: Choices and Changes"
3:45	Discussion and evaluation

4:00 Learning Strategy--"Looking at Change"

4:45 Discussion: What sex stereotype or career-related change(s) or innovation(s) would you see as appropriate? (Modify worksheets for planned changes.)

Session Two:

3:15 Videotape No. 3, "Women: Choices and Changes"

3:45 Discussion and evaluation

4:00 Brainstorming Session: Needed or possible changes in home institutions.

Session Three

3:15 Guest Speaker: One in an atypical career.

4:15 Development of goal statements and final plans for change(s) and implementation(s).

Session Four:

Reports and evaluations: Future possibilities, commitments, plans.

* * * * * * * * *

B. SAMPLE FORMAT FOR A TWO-WEEK WORKSHOP OR THREE-CREDIT COURSE*

Participants will:

- Increase their awareness of their own attitudes and behaviors regarding sex roles and of the relationship between sex-role socialization and career options.
- Experience a content/process model of in-service training which they can adapt in developing their own implementation plans.
- Increase their knowledge of programs and change process through which they can reduce sex-role stereotyping in their own institutions.
- Expand their concept of career development education to include education, occupation, and lifestyle options in a developmental framework.

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*Adapted from 1977 BORN FREE Summer Institute.

- Develop ways to increase the involvement of parents, students, and community to reduce career-related sex-role stereotyping in educational institutions.

- Become familiar with efforts of business and industry to develop personnel strategies for opening career options for women and men.

Retreat:

At a recreational facility.

Retreat Agenda:

Saturday

8:30 - 9:00	Name Tags and Career Mixer
9:00 - 9:30	BORN FREE Overview Introduction of staff
9:30 - 10:30	Getting Acquainted: Learning Strategy--"Facilitators and Inhibitors of Career Development"
10:30 - 10:50	Break
10:50 - 12:00	Learning Strategy--"Collective Collage"
12:00 - 2:00	Lunch and Recreating
2:00 - 3:00	Learning Strategy--"Career Lifeline"
3:00 - 3:10	Break
3:10 - 5:00	Learning Strategy--"Group Roles"
5:00 - 6:00	Social Hour
6:00 - 7:00	Dinner
7:00 - 7:45	Learning Strategy--"Role Reversal"
7:45 - 8:40	Judging Collages
8:40 - 8:50	Learning Strategy (Dramatic Reading)--"Masculine/Feminine"
8:50 - 9:00	Debriefing

Workshop Agenda

Monday

8:00 - 9:00	Registration
9:00 - 9:30	Retreat recap--workshop overview (grades, texts, tapes, journal writing, etc.)
9:30 - 10:00	Pre-test
10:00 - 10:30	Learning Strategy--"Career/Occupation/Job/Life Style" (Content)
10:30 - 11:30	Career Development Conceptual Framework
11:30 - 12:00	Discussion
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 1:30	"Psycho-Social Visit" Orientation
1:30 - 2:30	Learning Strategy (Process)--"Early Sex-Role Messages"
2:30 - 3:50	Team Planning or Tape Viewing (read systems diagnosis, review packet at your level)
3:50 - 4:00	Journal reflections (include reactions to readings)

Tuesday

8:30 - 9:00	Materials browsing
9:00 - 10:00	Literature review--Elementary
10:00 - 10:20	Break
10:20 - 12:00	Literature reviews--Secondary and Higher Education
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 1:30	Videotape No. 1, "BORN FREE: A World of Options"
1:30 - 2:15	Videotape evaluation and discussion, using Video Viewers' Guide No. 1
2:15 - 2:45	Instructions for videotape viewing--"Videotape Festival"
2:45 - 3:50	Group Process Guidelines for Workshop Leaders
3:50 - 4:00	Journal reflections

Wednesday

8:30 - 9:00	Materials browsing
9:00 - 10:15	Assertion Training
10:15 - 10:35	Break
10:35 - 11:20	Assertion Training (cont.)
11:20 - 12:00	Learning Strategy (Process)--"Career Family Tree"
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 2:00	Learning Strategy (Content)--"Looking at Change"
2:00 - 3:50	Team planning or tape viewing
3:50 - 4:00	Journal reflections

Thursday

8:30 - 9:00	Materials browsing
9:00 - 10:15	Illustrative Programs (Elementary, Secondary, Postsecondary/ Higher Education)
10:15 - 10:30	Break
10:30 - 12:00	Illustrative Programs (cont.)
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 2:00	Learning Strategy (Process)--"Joe Househusband"
2:00 - 3:50	Team planning or tape viewing
3:50 - 4:00	Journal reflections

Friday

8:30 - 9:00	Materials browsing
9:00 - 10:00	Conceptual Model to Bring About Change
10:00 - 10:15	Resistance to Change
10:15 - 10:35	Break
10:35 - 11:15	Becoming Change Agents--discussion with practitioners and workshop staff
11:15 - 12:00	Module Activity (Content)--"Force-Field Analysis"

Monday

8:30 - 9:00	Materials browsing
9:00 - 10:15	How to Deal with Administrators

10:15 - 10:35	Break
10:35 - 11:30	Announcements
11:30 - 12:00	Evaluating Your Activities
12:00 - 2:00	Learning Activity (Content)--"Textbook Analysis of Sex-Role Stereotypes"
2:00 - 3:50	Team planning or tape viewing
3:50 - 4:00	Journal reflections

Tuesday

9:00 - 10:00	Videotape No. 2, "Men: Choices and Changes," and No. 3, "Women: Choices and Changes"
10:00 - 10:45	Discussion of video, using Video Viewers' Guides No. 2 and No. 3
10:45 - 11:45	Learning Strategy--"Strategies for Change"
11:45 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 4:00	Learning Strategy--"Psycho-Social Visit" Visit evaluations and reflections

Wednesday

8:30 - 9:00	Materials browsing
9:00 - 10:00	Share psycho-social visits
10:00 - 10:20	Break
10:20 - 11:00	Learning Strategies review/evaluation
11:00 - 12:00	Learning (Process)--"Magic Seminar"
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 3:50	Work on implementation plan or tape viewing
3:50 - 4:00	Journal reflections

Thursday

8:30 - 9:00	Materials browsing
9:00 - 10:00	Learning Strategy (Process)--"Physical Continuum"
10:00 - 10:15	Break
10:15 - 11:15	Catch-up Session Relating career education to developmental approaches Vocational interest tests Sex-role identity development
11:15 - 12:00	Learning Strategy (Content)--"Commitment to Change"
12:00 - 2:00	Lunch
2:00 - 3:30	Team planning or videotape viewing
3:30 - 4:00	Final journal reflections (collect, read)

Friday

8:30 - 10:00	Present implementation plans (by levels)
10:00 - 10:45	Break
10:45 - 12:00	Evaluation and Post Test

C. SAMPLE FORMAT FOR A TWO-HOUR COLLEGE WORKSHOP*

Sex-Role Stereotyping: Its Influence on Curricular Choices and Career Options

WHEN: Wednesday, May 17, 1979 - 10:15 a.m.

WHERE: Room 421 Student Union

10:15 a.m. Introductory Comments

Joe Jones, Director
CLA Career Development Office
"Career Advising in Liberal Arts"

Mary Smith, Director, Women's Center
Instructor, Family Science
"Myths and Realities of Sex-Role Stereotyping and the Effects upon Course Selection"

10:45 a.m. Coffee, in Discussion Groups
Distribution of graphs showing imbalance in departmental enrollment and dropout rates for previous five years; and prerequisite differences between departments

11:00 a.m. Presentation: Implications of departmental enrollment data for advising on the departmental and premajor level

12:00 p.m. Lunch at the Campus Club, including distribution of materials packets: Abstract of Project BORN FREE, Video Abstracts, Sample Strategies and Articles from Postsecondary Packet, and List of BORN FREE Products and Publications

Sample Preregistration Form

Return to: Joe Jones, Director
CLA Career Development Office
203 College Hall

Name: ______________________________ Dept.: ______________

_____ I will be attending the meeting

_____ I will be staying for lunch _____ I will not be staying for lunch

_____ I will not be able to attend the meeting. The following departmental representative will be there. Name: ______________________________

Office: ______________________________ Phone #: ______________

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*Adapted from a BORN FREE workshop sponsored by the Career Planning and Placement Office, College of Liberal Arts, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, 1978.

SAMPLE FORMAT FOR INVITATIONAL LETTER FOR COLLEGE WORKSHOP

Dear CLA Staff Member:

As a departmental adviser to undergraduates, you are in a position to discuss with students their course selections and career alternatives. Some of us who have similar opportunities are concerned about the possible influences sex-role stereotypes may have on the academic and career decisions students are making. I would like to invite you to attend a meeting to discuss this concern with other department and pre-major advising representatives. As a result of this meeting we hope to identify ways in which students can expand their curricular choices and career options.

We will meet at 10:15 a.m., Wednesday, May 24th, in room 421 of the Student Union. Lunch will be in the Campus Club. The meeting is sponsored by Project BORN FREE.* If you cannot attend this meeting I hope you will request someone else within your department to do so, as we would like your discipline to be represented.

Sincerely,

Director
Career Development Office

cc:

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*A federally funded program to reduce sex-role stereotyping and expand career options for women and men.

X. SUMMARY OF SECONDARY LITERATURE REVIEW[1]

Generalizations and Implications

As part of the knowledge base on which the Project BORN FREE materials have been developed, a survey of the literature was undertaken to ascertain what is known about career socialization at the secondary level (Johnson et al., 1977). It would be an impossible task to include all the studies on sex-role socialization, career development, and sex differences in a review of this scope. The authors have sought to identify those studies and theoretical formulations most closely related to the goals of Project BORN FREE at the secondary level. Readers are encouraged to examine the more detailed Selected Review of the Literature and the original studies to get the full picture of their impact.

It should be stressed that the state of the art of "what we know" about career socialization is still primitive. Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) have identified in their review of empirical studies those areas of sex differences which seem to be established through considerable research (e.g., aggression, verbal abilities, spatial relations). They have further identified those areas in which the evidence is conflicting or research simply has not been done. Evidence of uncertainty and controversy which still exist is provided in an article by Block (1976) in which she is highly critical of the research summaries of Maccoby and Jacklin. The work of Golden and Hunter (1974) contributes to the documentation of the existence of sex-role stereotyping in the schools as does that of Guttentag and Bray (1976), whose research and intervention were primarily at the elementary and junior high levels.

In spite of the abundance of research, there is much that is not known about sex-role stereotyping and career socialization. Some of the relationships are inferred rather than direct; hence the need for caution in making generalizations about what sex differences exist, their causes, and their impact on career development of adolescents.

In completing this review, and comparing its findings with clinical observations made through an analysis of participating junior and senior high schools, the authors were struck by the similarity of the research evidence and the anecdotal data. In fact, two local studies completed in participating schools (Teeson, 1977; Wangen, 1976) produced results very similar to those of Douvan and Adelson (1966) over a decade ago.

There does seem to be some evidence that sex stereotyping exists, that it occurs at home and school, and that it has considerable impact on the kinds of educational-vocational decisions made by boys and girls and the kinds of life style options they consider. While the final word is not in on the career development and career decisions of adolescents, there does seem to be a reasonable case for action. This review is intended to be used as a basis for intervention by educators and parents who wish to change their behaviors, attitudes, and practices to reduce barriers and expand career options for adolescent girls and boys.

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[1] From: Project BORN FREE Selected Review of the Literature on Career Development and Sex-Role Stereotyping at the Secondary Level, 1977.

It is expected that the literature review, combined with the institutional analysis of participating schools and the career development conceptual framework, will provide a solid base for the utilization of training materials to increase educator and parent awareness and motivate them to action to more positively facilitate adolescent career development as it relates to sex-role stereotyping.

A brief summary from the secondary literature review, in outline form, appears below. Major findings from some of the studies are presented in capsule form. Identified as part of the area of career development and sex-role stereotyping are information processing, influencers, sex-role stereotyping, and interventions to reduce stereotyping. Because the studies are very uneven in their rigor and design, readers need to check the reports carefully before accepting the generalizations made.

Sex-Role Stereotyping in the Schools

Literature abounds with studies elaborating on the existence of external and/or environmental restriction cues that reinforce sex-role stereotypes in the American educational system.

A. Some structural processes of the schools not only encourage but also reinforce role stereotypes for girls and boys--notions of sexual complementarity (Dobbert, 1975).

  1. Role grouping in non-academic student activities--males do the sports activities while females do the cheerleading; boys initiate dates while girls wait.

  2. Adult models in school administration are overwhelmingly male: in the high school, only 3% in the principal's role are women. Girls quickly learn that females, in general, do not fill administrative roles and those women that do are probably unusual or exceptional (Taylor, 1973).

  3. Schools give ambiguous messages regarding sexual complementarity. Overtly and officially schools carry messages of sexual equality, in compliance with Title IX, while covertly placing men and women in traditional roles, with girls as homecoming queens and boys as football heroes.

B. Textbook images portray males and females in traditional stereotypic roles.

  1. In several analyses of textbook materials currently used in the schools, women were portrayed as "old maids," "heartless people," "plotting to catch a man" (Hurst, 1973).

  2. Males were featured in major roles almost four times more often than females (Britton, 1973).

3. Descriptive words for boys were: daring, intelligent, ingenious, problem solver, doers, achievers, builders, sportspeople, heroic, persevering, aggressive, stoic, and emotionless (Britton, 1973).

4. Girls were portrayed as docile, pleasing, self-effacing, incompetent, inept, passive, nonachieving, unthinking observers, neat, and clean (Britton, 1973).

C. It appears that in the scientific field the stereotypic treatment of boys and girls is highlighted (Hardin and Dede, 1973).

1. Forces which seem to perpetrate sex-role stereotyping include: lack of role models to encourage girls to become scientists; the small number of women in science, which may limit models of success for female students; subtle socialization for boys and girls, e.g., in the toys they play with; and books which portray boys as active problem solvers and girls as in need of support and help.

2. Astin (1973) found that girls perform as well as boys in mathematics, science, and tests of spatial relationship up to about age 10. Thereafter, their performance becomes increasingly poor. Astin suggests this effect is due, in part, to differential reinforcement on the part of parents and teachers.

D. Sex-role stereotyping in athletics, despite Title IX legislation, is well defined for girls and boys (Engle, 1973; Sandler, 1975).

1. Myths refuted that girls are not interested in competitive sports, and that they have fragile bones, underdeveloped muscles, and vulnerable reproductive organs, making them more prone to injury than boys.

2. Reverse socialization problems seem to occur for nonathletic boys in comparison to athletic girls (Cottle, 1972).

E. It appears that the strength of the stereotypic roles viewed appropriate for boys and for girls seems to increase with age, and these roles appear to be more fully developed in later junior high and senior high school years (Entwisle and Greenberger, 1970; Sparks, 1967; Stein, 1971).

F. Studies also demonstrate females are more likely to give an egalitarian, liberal response than males, with egalitarian defined as being more positive and favorable to the concept of social change for women, so as to provide them with greater freedom to participate in social, economic, and political spheres (Greenberg, 1973; Sheppard and Hess, 1975).

Psychological Variables

Self-Concept

Adolescents think others are as interested in their appearance and behavior as they are themselves--egocentrism of adolescents (Elkind, 1967).

As age increases, boys exhibit progressively higher opinions of boys and girls devalue their own sex (Smith, 1939).

Tenth-grade girls reveal lower self-concept scores than any comparison groups (Bohan, 1973).

Adolescents of both sexes have lower self-concept than children of younger ages (Katz and Zigler, 1967).

Junior high girls perceive themselves to be less active than junior high boys (Wiggins, 1973).

Girls feel they are more competent in social and interpersonal skills while boys are more sports-minded (Wiggins, 1973).

Sense of Agency

Girls who had expressed strong vocational goals in junior high switched to marriage goals in senior high (Matthews and Tiedeman, 1964).

There was evidence of lack of vocational goals and planning for high school girls (Lewis, 1965; Rapoza and Blocher, 1976; Zytowski, 1969).

Girls are more dependent on praise and support from others rather than on their own internalized standard of excellence (Veroff, 1969).

Females are more field-dependent (Asche, 1974). Field-dependent girls are unlikely to believe they are as capable as boys at new tasks and will be unlikely to try them (Lockheed, 1976).

Achievement Motivation/Aspirations

Girls have a more positive attitude toward school and achieve higher grades (Ellis, 1968).

Boys tend to experience decreased academic success when accompanied by a more traditional sex-role identity (Ponzo, 1973).

Girls do better academically with a more traditional sex-role identity (Ponzo, 1973).

Girls' college attendance varies greatly with curriculum. Boys are not influenced by this (Harp, 1976).

Junior high girls choose nontraditional college-related goals but change in high school to more stereotyped choices (Veroff, 1969).

For females, prestigious occupations and aversion were positively correlated, a result not found for males (Barnett, 1975).

Both males and females attribute more prestige to both women and men who conform to sex-role stereotypes (Simpson, 1974).

Career Information Processing

Differences exist between boys and girls in their information processing, career planning, and awareness of options. The literature reflects the following findings:

Boys:

Boys demonstrate a cultural disposition to choose and prepare for career roles (Douvan and Adelson, 1966).

Boys were viewed as actively engaged in and concerned with career planning and career decisions (Douvan and Adelson, 1966).

A developmental relationship exists between age and realistic planning (Douvan and Adelson, 1966).

Boys are viewed as more realistic than girls in their career planning (Douvan and Adelson, 1966; Flanagan and Jung, 1971; Jones, 1966).

Boys' fantasies were similar to their career aspirations, focusing on work and personal satisfaction derived from contributing to a work group (Douvan and Adelson, 1966).

Boys' worries and concerns also centered on work and achievement (Douvan and Adelson, 1966).

Girls:

Girls were less realistic than boys in their career plans, with ambiguities and inconsistencies appearing in their educational plans (Douvan and Adelson, 1966; Prediger, Roth and Noeth, 1974; Rand and Miller, 1972).

Although girls indicate a strong desire and plans for working, their career plans are in traditional stereotypic areas such as teaching, secretarial and clearical work, social services, and nursing (Prediger, Roth, and Noeth, 1974).

Girls' educational and career plans revealed a lack of coherence, a result not found in boys' plans (Douvan and Adelson, 1966).

Hawley (1976) suggests that one possible reason for girls to be less realistic in their career planning than boys might be that work has a lower priority for girls.

Marriage is a major goal for girls, with girls wanting and expecting to marry (Douvan and Adelson, 1966; Rand and Miller, 1972).

While most girls expect to combine career, marriage, and motherhood and feel that working wives are admirable, an equal portion consider working mothers bad for children (Farmer, 1976; Rand and Miller, 1972).

Girls showed considerably less coherence between reality and fantasy than boys, shifting dramatically away from the reality areas of jobs, education, and achievement striving. Main themes dominating girls' fantasies were femininity, personal attractiveness, and popularity (Douvan and Adelson, 1966).

Literature supports adolescent females' need to be socially successful, while adolescent boys' concerns stress personal achievement (Baumrind, 1972; Frazer and Sadker, 1973; Hawley, 1976; Sexton, 1969).

Findings by Burlin (1976) demonstrated that although a majority of young women were aware of a broad range of occupations, they did not feel free to pursue these choices due to the existence of fear of environmental restriction cues--e.g., inappropriate occupations for females.

Influencers of Career Development

Parents have the strongest influencing effect on their daughters' and sons' occupational choices (Drabick, 1967; Lungstrum, 1973).

Parents are crucial influencers in the general socialization process of their daughters and sons, e.g., regarding the range of ways in which women and men interact and regarding conveying attitudes toward role expectations (Drabick, 1967; Lungstrum, 1973).

Teachers were cited as being most influential, outside of the family, on students' occupational choices (Lungstrum, 1973).

Teachers are in key positions to encourage divergent choices for students or to perpetuate stereotyped norms, e.g., of unequal treatment of the sexes, of quite different expectations of students related to sex (Bem and Bem, 1973).

Counselors, like teachers, are persons who could take the lead in promoting emergent choices and behaviors in their students, but do not consistently do so (Friedersdorf, 1973; Hansen, 1972; Hawley, 1976).

Female counselors were noted in several studies as being more facilitative of emergent behaviors and attitudes than were male counselors (Englehard, 1969; Thomas and Stewart, 1971).

Schools are often seen as perpetuating the status quo, including stereotyped sex-role and socialization norms (Minuchin, 1972; Prediger, Roth, and Noeth, 1974).

Interventions

Two major areas of interventions were discussed in the literature review: interventions in specific curricular areas and interventions school-wide or system-wide. Among these are the following:

Birk and Tanney (1973) have developed a model to stimulate the exploration of career goals by young women in junior and senior high school.

Emma Willard Task Force on Education (1971) has identified and created units and activities in a variety of areas related to sex-role stereotyping.

The National Education Association has created an excellent kit on sex-roles for elementary and secondary education.

L. S. Hansen's model (1972; 1974) for career development through curriculum is a systematic sequential approach to K-12 which stresses the importance of self-concept, use of media, and classroom and on-the-job activities.

An excellent step-by-step systematic resource for implementing change is Havelock's text (1973), A Change Agent's Guide to Innovation in Education.

This review has attempted to identify significant studies related to career development and sex-role stereotyping in the secondary schools. Within the framework of a career development conceptual model, it has examined aspects of sex differences and similarities in adolescence in such areas as self-concept, locus of control, achievement motivation, career information processing, and sex-role stereotyping. It also has looked at some of the influencers on career development, as well as interventions created and implemented by various psychologists and educators to reduce career-related sex-role stereotyping.

Recognizing that the literature on career socialization is still very much an unfinished business, the authors suggest caution in accepting the generalizations and findings as the final word. At the same time they believe the evidence of limits on career options is sufficient to support expanded activity by educators and parents to reduce these limits on adolescent career growth.

It seems appropriate to conclude with two statements from Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) which highlight the issues.

> Returning to one of the major conclusions of our survey of sex differences there are many popular beliefs about the psychological characteristics of the two sexes that have proved to have little or no basis in fact. How is it possible that people continue to believe, for example, that girls are more "social" than boys when careful observation and measurement in a variety of situations show no sex difference? Of course it is possible that we have not studied those particular situations that contribute most to the popular beliefs. But if this is the problem, it means that the alleged sex difference exists only in a limited range of situations and the sweeping generalizations embodied in popular beliefs are not warranted.

> However, a more likely explanation for the perpetuation of "myths," we believe, is the fact that stereotypes are such powerful things. An ancient truth is worth restating here: if a generalization about a group of people is believed, whenever a member of that group behaves in the expected way the observer notes it and his belief is confirmed and strengthened: when a member of the group behaves in a way that is not consistent with the observer's expectations, the instance is likely to pass unnoticed, and the observer's generalized belief is protected from disconfirmation. We believe that this well-documented process occurs continually in relation to the expected and perceived behavior of males and females, and results in the perpetuation of myths that would otherwise die out under the impact of negative evidence. However, not all unconfirmed beliefs about the two sexes are of this sort. It is necessary to reconsider the nature of the evidence that permits us to conclude what is myth and what is (at least potentially) reality (p. 355).

It has been the intent of this review to provide a reasonable base for: 1) differentiating myth from reality in the area of adolescent career socialization, and 2) utilizing training materials to help achieve the goals of Project BORN FREE.

XI. BORN FREE DEFINITIONS

Aggressive behavior -- involves standing up for one's own rights, beliefs and feelings in a way which does not respect the rights of the other person.

Androgyny -- used to refer to "sex-free" roles. The androgynous person is viewed as able to shift roles with the changing demands of a situation without threat. The androgynous individual is comfortable being assertive, self-confident, independent, dependent, nurturant and tender, when appropriate (Farmer, 1976).

Assertive behavior -- involves standing up for personal rights and expressing thoughts, feelings, and beliefs in direct, honest, and appropriate ways without infringing on the rights of others.

Career -- "a time-extended working out of a purposeful life pattern through work, paid or unpaid, undertaken and engaged in by the individual" (AVA-NVGA Commission on Career Guidance and Vocational Education, 1973). It is not synonymous with occupation, but rather includes various life roles and positions over the life span, of which occupation is only one.

Career development -- focuses on seeking, obtaining and processing information about self, occupational-educational alternatives, life style and role options, and socioeconomic and labor market trends. It is a continuous, lifelong person-centered process of developmental experiences. Career development involves engaging in purposeful planning in order to make reasoned decisions about work and its relation to other life roles with benefit to self and society (Hansen, 1976).

Career development variable -- a major task area from one of the several stages in the Career Development Curriculum (CDC) model.

The following career development variables are referred to in the training materials.

Achievement motivation -- in simplistic terms, the desire and motivating forces to achieve. A model of achievement motivation developed by Atkinson and Feather (1966) and McClelland (1971) identified several critical factors for high achievement motivation which included an internal standard of excellence, independence, persistence, preference for tasks of intermediate difficulty, high academic performance, and clearly defined goals.

Career information processing -- the manner in which an individual incorporates knowledge of the world of work with her/his own values, interests, abilities, and life style needs to make possible career decisions.

Influencers -- any group or force thought to exert some kind of influence on the development of individuals. Influencers might include parents, teachers, counselors, schools (as institutions), media, and peers.

Interventions -- possible strategies for implementing change in institutions and/or with individuals.

Self-concept -- an individual's perceptions of his or her abilities, attitudes and other personal resources or characteristics.

Sense of agency -- locus of control--an individual's perceptions of whether or not she or he can personally control her/his environment. A person with an internal locus of control would be internally motivated to make her/his own choices; a person with an external locus of control (or sense of agency) yields to external cues, pressures and/or other people in controlling the events in her/his own life.

Sex-role stereotyping -- assumptions made and messages given to students (in educational institutions) which tend to reinforce or encourage stereotyping. (Example: some textbook materials used in schools portray males and females only in traditional stereotypic roles.)

Career education -- a developmental, deliberate, and collaborative effort by educators, parents, and business-industry-labor-government personnel to systematically promote the career development of all persons. It creates experiences to help individuals learn academic, vocational, and basic skills and achieve a sense of agency in making informed career decisions; and to master the developmental tasks facing them at various life stages through curriculum, counseling, and community.

Career guidance -- a systematic program involving counselors, teachers, and parents. It is part of career education, designed to increase one's knowledge of self; of occupations, training paths, and life styles; of labor market trends and employability skills; and of the career decision-making process. It helps the individual gain self-direction through purposefully and consciously integrating work, family, leisure, and community roles.

Career socialization -- the differential experiences and processes used to prepare females and males for the educational, occupational, and life style roles and choices society has defined as being appropriate for their particular sex. Racial, ethnic, age, and socioeconomic factors also are a part of one's career socialization.

Change agents -- those persons who participate in and often instigate institutional change process--through strategic risk taking and calculated, organized planning. Change agents also refer to those persons who work in and model behaviors which affect persons and institutions. (Adapted from SEGO, Verheyden-Hilliard, 1976).

Nonassertive behavior -- involves the violation of one's rights by failing to express honestly what one thinks, believes, or feels.

Occupation -- used in a narrower sense, occupation refers to one's employment or job, e.g., teacher, counselor, business person, firefighter, mechanic.

Occupational sex-typing -- the differential assumptions and expectations about occupations that lead to segregation of the sexes by occupation.

Role -- the part or parts a person assumes at a given time and place. A person can have a variety of roles at any given time.

Role model -- a person who exhibits behavior after which another person tries to pattern his/her behavior.

Role reversal -- procedure thought to help reduce or eliminate distorted perception, misunderstandings, defensiveness and either/or thinking. Through discussion or role playing, a person "takes the role of another person," assuming all characteristics that accompany the particular role.

Sexism -- any arbitrary stereotypes of either males or females which caused prejudgment on the basis of their sex (gender). (Adapted from SEGO, Verheyden-Hilliard, 1976).

Sex-role socialization -- refers to the differential experiences and processes used to prepare females and males for the roles society has defined as being appropriate for their particular sex.

Sex-role stereotype -- defined as the assumption that all females or all males, because they share a common gender, also have the same characteristics, such as the same interests, values, and roles.

Socialization -- the process by which children and adults are prepared to occupy and perform various roles. Socialization is achieved through the accumulation of life experiences that transmit messages of appropriate knowledge, attitudes, and skills to perform functions necessary for these roles. Socialization processes for young children are often deliberate and readily observable as children are being prepared to carry out a variety of complex and social, physical, economic, political, and psychological roles as adults. Many adult socialization processes are subtle and unnoticeable, because these processes consist of continued reinforcement for already-learned roles.

Stereotype -- an assumption that because a number of individuals share one attribute--e.g., race or sex--they are similar in many other ways.

Work -- broadly conceived to include nonpaid as well as paid employment, educational endeavors, and some avocational efforts.

XII. THE LEARNING STRATEGIES

Secondary-Level Goals and Objectives

Guide to Learning Strategies

The Learning Strategies

Secondary Level

Goals and Objectives

	Learning Activities Code:
I. PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.	
A. Identify the various stages of career development and the developmental tasks associated with each stage.	I.A.1-3.
B. Identify traditional and nontraditional female and male roles in the world of work.	I.B.1-5.
C. Investigate and discuss the limitations which traditional stereotypes of femininity and masculinity place on career options.	I.C.1-13.
D. Identify factors which influence various female and male career development patterns.	I.D.1-6.
E. Recognize and take responsibility for personal attitudes and biases.	I.E.1.
II. PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW LANGUAGE AND THE MEDIA FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.	
A. Investigate and discuss the ways in which language and the media (e.g., television, radio, films, books, magazines, songs) reflect, create, and reinforce career-related sex-role stereotypes.	II.A.1-7.
III. PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURES AND PRACTICES FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.	
A. Examine obvious and more subtle types of behaviors which influence choices made in school by female and male students.	III.A.1-2.
B. Identify school policies and structures which reinforce sex stereotypes.	III.B.1-7
C. Identify and critique sex-role stereotypes in textbooks, career development materials, and other educational materials.	III.C.1-2.

		Learning Activities Code:
IV.	PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS HOW PARENTS AND OTHER FAMILY MEMBERS FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.	
A.	Relate their understanding of sex stereotyping to their family background and career-related family communications.	IV.4.1-6.
B.	Identify changing roles of men and women in families and occupations.	IV.B.1-5.
C.	Identify family and community resources and devise strategies to broaden the range of career models and options for their children.	IV.C.1-2.
V.	PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF WAYS IN WHICH RELIGIOUS AND PHILOSOPHICAL VALUES MAY FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.	
A.	Identify and discuss the interaction between various value systems and life/career expectations for women and men.	V.A.1-2.
B.	Identify ways in which religious doctrine, language, and leadership roles influence the sex-role socialization and career development of women and men.	V.B.1-4.
VI.	PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.	
A.	Assess and analyze personal styles and modes of change.	VI.A.1-4.
B.	Identify possible points of intervention in home institutions.	VI.B.1-3.
C.	Examine institutional factors which may affect possibilities for change.	VI.C.1-3.
D.	Identify various strategies for making change in their home institutions.	VI.D.1-4.
E.	Become aware of the range of change strategies appropriate for home institutions.	VI.E.1-2.
F.	Apply a systems model of content and process in developing strategies for change in home institutions.	VI.F.1-3.

GUIDE TO LEARNING STRATEGIES

Number	Strategy	Parents and/or Educators	Awareness Level
I.A.1.	Career Lifeline	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L/M
I.A.2.	Career/Occupation/ Job/Life Style	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
I.A.3.	Career Development Principles	E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
I.B.1.	BORN FREE: A World of Options (Videotape)	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
I.B.2.	Work Force Quiz	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
I.B.3.	Life Style Activities and Occupations Survey	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
I.B.4.	Psycho-Social Visit	P/E	SR-M CD-L TL-L
I.B.5.	The Joy of Choosing (Videotape)	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
I.C.1.	Myths and Realities	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
I.C.2.	Early Sex-Role Messages	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L

GUIDE TO LEARNING STRATEGIES (continued)

Number	Strategy	Parents and/or Educators	Awareness Level
I.C.3.	Script Checklist	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
I.C.4.	Women: Choices and Changes (Videotape)	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
I.C.5.	Men: Choices and Changes (Videotape)	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
I.C.6.	Men's Lives	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L/M
I.C.7	Facilitators/ Inhibitors of Career Development	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
I.C.8.	The New Superintendent	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
I.C.9.	Masculine/Feminine - A Reading	P/E	SR-M CD-L TL-H
I.C.10.	Androgyny Test	P/E	SR-M/H CD-L TL-M
I.C.11.	The Androgynous Personality	E	SR-H CD-L TL-M/H
I.C.12.	Are Women Persons?	P/E	SR-M CD-L TL-L
I.C.13.	Impact of Social Policy	P/E	SR-M CD-H TL-L
I.D.1.	Magic Seminar	P/E	SR-M CD-L TL-H

GUIDE TO LEARNING STRATEGIES (continued)

Number	Strategy	Parents and/or Educators	Awareness Level
I.D.2.	Role Identification	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
I.D.3.	Breaking Stereotypes	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
I.D.4.	Double Jeopardy	P/E	SR-M CD-L TL-M
I.D.5.	Role Models Panel	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
I.D.6.	Reviewing the Literature	E	SR-M CD-M TL-L
I.E.1.	Physical Continuum	P/E	SR-H CD-L TL-H
II.A.1.	Language and Sex-Role Stereotyping	E	SR-M CD-L TL-M
II.A.2.	Personal Pronoun Problem	E	SR-L CD-L TL-L/M
II.A.3.	You Are What You Say	P/E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
II.A.4	Collage: Men/Women at Work	P/E	SR-M CD-L TL-L
II.A.5.	Media Messages	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
II.A.6.	What's Wrong with This Picture?	P/E	SR-M CD-M TL-L

GUIDE TO LEARNING STRATEGIES (continued)

Number	Strategy	Parents and/or Educators	Awareness Level
II.A.7.	Seeing Is Believing	P/E	SR-L CD-M TL-L
III.A.1.	The Ideal Female/ Male Student	E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
III.A.2.	School Situations: Role Plays	E	SR-M CD-L TL-M
III.B.1.	School Comparison Charts	E	SR-M CD-L TL-L
III.B.2.	Role Behavior Checklist	E	SR-M CD-L TL-M
III.B.3.	Examination of Curriculum Areas	E	SR-M CD-L TL-L
III.B.4.	Vocational Education and Sex-Role Stereotyping	E	SR-M CD-L TL-L
III.B.5.	The Politics of Training Teachers in Schools	E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
III.B.6.	Schools as Influencers (Videotape)	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
III.B.7.	Colleges as Influencers (Videotape)	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
III.C.1.	Textbook Analysis of Sex-Role Stereotypes	E	SR-M CD-L TL-L
III.C.2.	Stereotypes of the Physically Disabled	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L

GUIDE TO LEARNING STRATEGIES (continued)

Number	Strategy	Parents and/or Educators	Awareness Level
IV.A.1.	Introductions: Career Influencers	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
IV.A.2.	Occupational Family Tree	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
IV.A.3.	Role Playing Family Situations	P	SR-M CD-M TL-M
IV.A.4.	Student Panel	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
IV.A.5.	Parenting - Three Generations (Videotape)	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
IV.A.6	Parents as Influencers (Videotape)	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
IV.B.1.	Home on the Electric Range	P/E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
IV.B.2.	Joe Househusband	P/E	SR-H CD-M TL-M
IV.B.3.	Are You Hurting Your Daughter Without Knowing It?	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
IV.B.4.	The Great Debate	P/E	SR-M/H CD-M TL-H
IV.B.5.	Emerging Career Patterns	P/E	SR-M CD-M TL-L
IV.C.1.	Career Learning Stations	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L

GUIDE TO LEARNING STRATEGIES (continued)

Number	Strategy	Parents and/or Educators	Awareness Level
IV.C.2.	Career Roadblocks	P/E	SR-M CD-L TL-L
V.A.1.	Ways to Live: A Values Exercise	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
V.A.2.	Time Pie	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
V.B.1.	Jesus Was a Feminist	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
V.B.2.	New Language for the Gospel	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
V.B.3.	Career Patterns and Religious Institutions	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
V.B.4.	Men and Women in Religious Leadership Roles	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
VI.A.1.	Why Change? (Videotape)	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
VI.A.2.	Your Decision-Making Style	E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
VI.A.3.	Group Roles	E	SR-M CD-L TL-M
VI.A.4.	Looking at Change	E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
VI.B.1.	It's What You Know...	E	SR-L CD-L TL-M

GUIDE TO LEARNING STRATEGIES (continued)

Number	Strategy	Parents and/or Educators	Awareness Level
VI.B.2.	It's Who You Know...	E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
VI.B.3.	Legal Considerations	P/E	SR-M CD-M TL-L
VI.C.1.	Sources of Power	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
VI.C.2.	Power Structure	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
VI.C.3.	Creating Support for Change	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
VI.D.1.	Force-Field Analysis	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
VI.D.2.	Reducing Resistance	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
VI.D.3.	Assertiveness	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
VI.D.4.	Situational Assertiveness	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-H
VI.E.1.	Range of Change Strategies	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
VI.E.2.	Commitment to Change	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
VI.F.1.	How to Be a Process Helper	E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
VI.F.2.	Change Process: Small Is Beautiful	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M

GUIDE TO LEARNING STRATEGIES (continued)

Number	Strategy	Parents and/or Educators	Awareness Level
VI.F.3.	Creating an Implementation Plan	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M

Goal 1

PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

Objectives and Learning Strategies

A. Identify the various stages of career development and the developmental tasks associated with each stage.

   1. Career Life Line
   2. Career/Occupation/Job/Life Style
   3. Career Development Principles

B. Identify traditional and nontraditional female and male roles in the world of work.

   1. BORN FREE: A World of Options (Videotape)
   2. Work Force Quiz
   3. Life Style Activities and Occupations Survey
   4. Psycho-Social Visit
   5. The Joy of Choosing (Videotape)

C. Investigate and discuss the limitations which traditional stereotypes of femininity and masculinity place on career options.

   1. Myths and Realities
   2. Early Sex-Role Messages
   3. Script Checklist
   4. Women: Choices and Changes (Videotape)
   5. Men: Choices and Changes (Videotape)
   6. Men's Lives
   7. Facilitators/Inhibitors of Career Development
   8. The New Superintendent
   9. Masculine/Feminine - A Reading

10. Androgyny Test
11. The Androgynous Personality
12. Are Women Persons?
13. Impact of Social Policy

D. Identify factors which influence various female and male career development patterns.

1. Magic Seminar
2. Role Identification
3. Breaking Stereotypes
4. Double Jeopardy
5. Role Models Panel
6. Reviewing the Literature

E. Recognize and take responsibility for personal attitudes and biases.

1. Physical Continuum

"Career Lifeline"[1]

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

A. Objective: Identifying the various stages of career development and the developmental tasks associated with each stage.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity often is helpful in stimulating discussion about career development and in facilitating interaction among workshop participants who are not acqainted. Other activities which may be similarly helpful for your workshop are IV.A.1., "Introductions: Career Influencers," and IV.A.2., "Occupational Family Tree."

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Use 8 x 14 or larger paper, felt-tip pen, ball-point, or magic marker. Draw a horizontal line across the middle of the page (it can be shaped to show "ups and downs"). On one end mark B.C." (began career) and on the other end mark "E.C. (end career). Put an X on the continuum where you are now.

c. Using symbols, stick figures, or other pictures, indicate factors that have influenced your career. (Include persons, places, events, decisions.) Place the positive factors above the line, negative factors below the line, neutral on the line. If your maleness or femaleness has been a factor, circle the factor in a different color. Use the following symbols to indicate decisions:

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[1] Adapted from:

Hansen, L.S. Career lifeline. Developed for career development courses, Department of Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology. University of Minnesota: Minneapolis, MN, 1971.

Scholz, M., Prince, J., and Miller, T. How to decide. Princeton, New Jersey: College Entrance Examination Board, 1976.

A woman's place is ... An overview of women and work. Career Development Packet #2. Emily Taylor Women's Resource and Career Center, University of Kansas, 1976.

- = worst decision
+ = best decision
! = when the greatest risk was taken
x = obstacle which kept you from doing something you wanted to do
? = critical decision coming up

Project into the future your goals, hopes, and aspirations and place symbols on the career lifeline at appropriate points.

d. When each person has finished, break into groups of three or four to process the activity by sharing the meaning of each symbol. Identify significant others, adding more symbols during processing, if appropriate. With exclamation point (!) indicate any surprises or "aha's." (Share only what is comfortable to share.)

e. Questions for the participants to discuss:

1) What part has your occupation played in choosing your other life style considerations (friends, vacation time, amount of money earned, clothes you wear, etc.)?

2) How much of your career was planned vs. how much just happened?

3) What impact has your race, economic class, or ethnic background had on your career development?

4) What did you learn for/about yourself from doing your career lifeline (consistency/inconsistency in personal/professional growth, etc.)?

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/4 hours

Resources Needed:

Materials: Paper (8 x 14 or larger), pencil, felt-tip pen, or marker
Reference: Scholz, Prince, and Miller (1976)

Outcome Criterion:

After completing the lifeline activity, participants will list five new insights about their careers.

"Career/Occupation/Job/Life Style"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

A. Objective: Identify the various stages of career development and the developmental tasks associated with each stage.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This is a very good strategy to use to introduce people to the whole area of career development. It brings out the differing perceptions and feelings that people have about "career" vs. "jobs" vs. "occupations" vs. "life style" and stimulates interest.

Instructions:

a. Pass out copies of "Career/Occupation/Job/Life Style: Worksheet" and have participants fill it out based on their individual perceptions.

b. Have participants, in large group, call out their definitions or synonyms to the recorder, who writes them on the blackboard.

c. Leader summarizes and leads discussion on relationships among these categories. Be sure to bring in consideration of race, sex, or economic class stereotypes among the categories.

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Markers/pens, blackboard or newsprint.
Handouts: "Career/Occupation/Job/Life Style: Worksheet"
Reference: Katz (1974)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will distinguish among occupation, job, and career by listing differences and discussing them.

CAREER/OCCUPATION/JOB/LIFE STYLE: WORKSHEET

Directions: List all the words that come to mind and place them in the appropriate category. This exercise is based on your own perceptions; there are no "right" or "wrong" answers.)

CAREER	OCCUPATION	JOB	LIFESTYLE
Examples:			
Long term Changing Life style Job	Pipefitter Teacher Four to five occupations in a lifetime	8:00 - 5:00 Blue collar Boring	Single Dual Career Married

"Career Development Principles"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

A. Objective: Identify the various stages of career development and the developmental tasks associated with each stage.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Workshop leaders should prepare or invite a resource person to present a 30-minute presentation on the Career Development Curriculum (CDC) model (Tennyson, Hansen, Klaurens, and Antholz, 1975) and the various management tasks associated with each level. Special emphasis should be given to the secondary level-- the junior and senior high stages. Also, participants should be given the outline form of the K--post-high management tasks (attached). The use of a blackboard, overhead projector, or other audio-visual equipment will be helpful.

To assess participants' previous background in career development principles, learning strategy I.A.2., "Career/Occupation/Job/Lifestyle," can be used in conjunction with this presentation.

Be sure, at some point, to raise questions such as: (1) Would these career management tasks vary or be affected by one's race or economic status? (2) What are other issues that might be raised regarding the content or sequence of the tasks?

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Leader passes out copies of "The Career Development Curriculum Career Management Tasks" and introduces the speaker, if appropriate.

c. Speaker makes presentation and allows time for questions.

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Resource speaker knowledgeable in career development tasks
Materials: Chalkboard and/or overhead projector
Handout: "The Career Development Curriculum Career Management Tasks"
(Tennyson, Hansen, Klaurens, and Antholz, 1975)
Attached Article: "A Career Management Model for Counselor Involvement"
(Hansen and Tennyson, 1975)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list at least seven secondary-level career management tasks.

A CAREER MANAGEMENT MODEL FOR COUNSELOR INVOLVEMENT[1]

by Lorraine Sundal Hansen and W. Wesley Tennyson[2]

The counseling and guidance process has always been thought of as a process of helping individuals examine their life experiences, with the goal that they might know themselves and their environment better and act on that knowledge more purposefully and creatively. Developmental career guidance has increasingly been capturing the attention of counseling personnel in a variety of settings. The gradual emergence of comprehensive, systematic career guidance programs in schools, colleges, and agencies offers counselors an excellent opportunity to advance beyond the reflective, clinical posture of the past and take on the role of an active agent in helping individuals become conscious "career managers" in resolving the management tasks of their careers.

The concomitant movement today called career education has muddied the waters a bit, because parts of it have ignored the actual or potential contributions of counseling and career development to career education programs. If career guidance is to move beyond the limited approaches of the past, and if career education is to become more than the curriculum fad of the 1970s, ways need to be found to incorporate the salient principles of career development into an integrated program that focuses on the self-development of individuals and the tasks facing them as they move through various stages of career over the life span. We propose that career development offers the most viable integrating base and unifying concept for career guidance and career education and for the work of counseling personnel.

For a variety of reasons, career guidance and career counseling have not been a priority either in most practitioner settings or in counselor education. Today the continuing unmet career needs of youth and adults are beginning to be recognized, resulting in a revitalization of the career motif and the creation--in schools, agencies, and colleges--of a plethora of discrete models and strategies for career guidance and career education, often unconnected to each other and seldom tied to comprehensive objectives or related to human career needs. Career development as an integrating construct can help educators and counseling personnel in educational and community institutions to unify their efforts to facilitate actively the individual's management of his or her career.

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[1] From: Hansen, L.S., and Tennyson, W.W. A career management model for counselor involvement. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1975, 53, 638-645. Copyright © 1975, American Personnel and Guidance Association. Reprinted with permission.

[2] Lorraine Sundal Hansen and W. Wesley Tennyson are Professors of Educational Psychology at the University of Minnesota in Minneapolis. Mary Klaurens, along with the authors, guided the development of the CDC model described in the article.

Within this framework, this article has three purposes. First, we present, through a philosophic spectrum, a perspective of where society is today in career guidance, career development, and career education. Second, we describe and illustrate a content/process conceptualization for a kindergarten through post-high-school career development program, which can be adapted to adult, midlife, and preretirement career stages (i.e., life span career management). Third, we suggest ways in which such a framework has been and can be used by counseling personnel and educators in career guidance and career education programs.

CURRENT PERSPECTIVES

It was in the late sixties that career again became a prominent theme in counseling and education and caused counseling personnel to begin to look at their practices critically. That decade has been described as a time of

> awakening group consciousness, of indignation and outrage fed by a spreading realization of the pervasiveness of social and economic inequality and deprivation; of insurgency among Blacks, Chicanos, and native Americans; of sharp challenges by women liberationists, youth countercultures, conservationists, and consumer protection groups; of the championing of the values of the new individualism and "Consciousness III"; of the erosion of popular trust in major institutions--business firms, organized labor, Congress, the executive branch of federal government, the military, the courts, the press, the schools . . . of breathtaking social, economic, and technological change; and of the outward thrust of a new hedonism, aptly characterized by Martha Wolfenstein as the "fun morality." (Borow, 1974, p. 4)

The growing search for a new individualism and self-betterment suggests that "today, more than ever, human experience is essentially a process of choosing and deciding among possible stimuli and courses of action" (Kroll et al., 1970, p. 2). With increasing self-awareness, individuals have become more insistent on choosing--even creating--the goals and means they consider to be of value to themselves and to society. In order that they might manage the complexities of their modern-day environment, it seems essential that individuals acquire the skills for choosing, whether the choice relates to partner, community, family, or work, the latter being one of the significant ways in which individuals interact with that environment.

Obstacles to Career Management

Today's world presents obstacles that hinder individuals from developing and expressing their talents in their own unique ways. At each stage of life a person is confronted by societal conditions and problems that create personal dilemmas and thus affect the person's continuing development and ability to manage a career.

Among these problems are the changing meanings of work--thoughtful challenges of the traditional work ethic, midlife career changes, and concerted efforts to achieve balance among multiple life roles. A tight labor market creates limits on occupational opportunities, suggesting the need for counseling with regard to alternative occupations. There is the walling off of the employment-bound from the college-bound and of the school from the community in ways that limit the development of reality-based curricular and counseling experiences. An information deficit is created because of an open, fast-changing society in which it is difficult for one to know the range of options available or the means to achieve them. Finally, there are the special needs of bypassed populations, especially women, the handicapped, and minorities, who have been outside of the opportunity structure, who lack the sense of agency or positive self-concept that will allow their careers to develop, and who need to know the many life style options available to them.

Conceptions of Career Education

Career education is one response to a modern world in which purposeful choosing is imperative if change is to be managed in ways that facilitate personal development. But philosophies of career education vary greatly in their focus, some almost ignoring the counseling/career development emphasis, others making it the core of their approaches. These models may be classified according to whether the theorist chooses to focus on (a) work or the individual, (b) content or process, (c) work roles or multiple roles, and (d) training for employability or educating for life. They may even be grouped according to how work itself is defined, that is, whether it is limited to paid endeavors or expanded to include all significant goal-directed activity. Each of these classifications is reflected on the following continuum, an ordering of function from very narrow to extremely broad points of view. These are not discrete categories but rather overlapping ones, with major points of emphasis in each position on either job, work, self, or life.

Perhaps the most narrow conception is one that equates career education with occupational training. Those who take this position speak with enthusiasm about developing employability skills. What is emphasized is content necessary to match the person to the *job*, and career education is seen as a segmented program within the curriculum.

Next on the continuum is a conception that puts *work* as the central focus, stressing the need to give attention to occupational orientation and preparation. Emphasis is again on content, but in this case exploration of occupational clusters is added to skill training. Typically those who hold this point of view define work as the activities engaged in for immediate income and production. Career is defined as the sum total of an individual's work experience. Thus career is external to the individual, and career education is that part of the total educational program dealing specifically with education for work. This is an extremely popular conception, favored by those who want to delimit the concept in a definitive way.

Still further along the continuum is the point of view that *self* is the primary focus of career education. Proponents of this philosophy suggest that work, whether paid or volunteer, provides a major way in which people interact with the environment and that exploration in work and community is a useful way to help individuals clarify their values and needs in fashioning a meaningful life. Career is defined as a process internal to the person--a "time extended working out of a purposeful life pattern through work undertaken by the individual" (AVA/NVGA, 1973). Career education activities, emphasizing inductive and experience-based approaches to learning, are implemented at all levels and in various settings in systematic programs designed to promote career development. A focus on process expands the range and increases the effectiveness of an individual's perceptions of self, alternatives, and ways of interacting with the environment.

Finally, there is the position of those who see career education as a way of looking at total education, as education for *life* and living. They envision a major restructuring of curriculum and programs, advocating a complete reform of educational institutions. For those holding this point of view, career is synonymous with life, and all education is or should be career education.

This analysis of the several positions and what they imply is important in helping counseling personnel clarify how they can best relate to career education programs or, more significantly, how--by employing their particular skills--they might help to shape better conceptual, operational, or research programs. Obviously, the third and fourth positions on the continuum are most compatible with a counseling and guidance philosophy that promotes self-development.

CAREER MANAGEMENT CONCEPTUAL MODEL: THE CDC

For counseling personnel at all levels to have an impact on career education programs, they need to examine their own functioning and become active agents in helping other staff plan, implement, and evaluate program goals, strategies, and outcomes. Their efforts are needed to assure inclusion of guidance philosophy and content in career education. A career management conceptual model is suggested as a framework for the career guidance program and counselor interventions in career education. It is particularly pertinent to settings in which there is opportunity for systematic curricular or programmatic activities.

The Minnesota Career Development Curriculum (CDC), under development over the past five years by a team of faculty and graduate students at the University of Minnesota (Tennyson et al., in press), is presented here because, unlike many career education models, it (a) builds on career development theory and developmental psychology as its rationale, (b) provides a conceptualization based on the changing nature of individuals and the environment, (c) systematically attends to both content and process, and (d) offers a framework for practice and research and useful direction for counselor intervention in emerging programs. We present here a brief description of the career development principles undergirding the model, the career management tasks that form its core, and the process of model development. While it is presently a kindergarten through post-high program approximating the third position on the continuum, the intent is eventually to provide a theoretical description of total life span career development.

Construction of the CDC proceeded in an orderly sequential pattern, moving through descending abstractions from global statements of the mature, competent person to intermediate statements that define life management tasks or competencies and finally to general program objectives that can be translated into specific observable behaviors and learning activities. The procedure consisted of four major steps.

Step 1: Stating the Value Rationale Undergirding the Program

The first step in formulating a career guidance program is to identify the value premises underlying the program. The rationale consists of a clear statement of desirable outcomes for the individual, including assumptions about human nature and the world.

Idealistically, the goal of the Minnesota CDC is to facilitate development of the fully functioning and effective human being. The educational aim is to develop self-aware, flexible persons who can realize their potentials and acquire the competencies needed to work out relationships between themselves and a complex, changing society.

The CDC team extracted from the literature the following familiar career development principles considered essential to a self-based program. First, career development is a lifelong process of self-development, work being viewed as a vehicle for self-clarification. Second, career development includes the opportunity to examine life roles, occupations, and life styles. Third, the process of life span career development and decision making is emphasized more than the choice itself. Fourth, management of one's career, the power to direct one's future, the ability to maximize control over one's life is a major tenet. Fifth, the concept of multipotentiality--that each person has the potential for success and satisfaction in a number of occupations--frees individuals from the fear of making wrong choices and increases their available options. Sixth, commitment with tentativeness is a concept that is integral to a model based on changing individuals and society and that recognizes the importance of chance factors in career decisions.

With these career development principles in mind, the CDC team defined *career development* as part of human development: the lifelong process of self-development within the context of work, paid and volunteer. They *saw career education* as the *teaching, counseling,* and *community* interventions to facilitate that development. The original CDC program goals were refined recently by a staff designing a national career development project involving television films and related guides and manuals (Agency for Instructional Television, 1974). They stated:

> The program will enable individuals to express an increasingly positive self-concept; demonstrate some control over their lives and their life plans; develop objectivity in looking at self in relation to others; demonstrate those personal attitudes and interpersonal skills essential to effectiveness in current and future work; demonstrate respect for others and the work they do; identify and explore a number of self-in-work options; demonstrate a developing concept of work by assuming responsibility; develop skills for processing and acting upon information about self-in-work; recognize and describe the relationship and influences of current experience and decisions to present and later career development; experience interrelatedness among school learnings to problems and activities outside of school. (p. 7)

These goals are based on a number of value assumptions that the CDC staff made explicit. For example, the economic reward obtained from work is not sufficient to define a person's worth. Men and women, given the security of economic stability, work to achieve a sense of personal significance. The individual is considered to be a potentially active agent, able to adapt and restructure his or her environment in constructive and satisfying ways. Psychologically healthy people assume responsibility for their own activities, using the educational system to explore the range of means available and even generating their own alternatives and solutions to problems. Finally, equality of opportunity for all, without regard to race, sex, age, or religion, must become a part of everyone's value system. Less attention should be given to measurement of abilities and more attention to active exploration and development of abilities.

Step 2: Identifying and Providing Conceptual Definitions of the Relevant Management Tasks or Competencies

Ultimate, or global, goals are realized by mastering the management tasks or competencies that are specific to different life stages. Career development stages, like physiological or intellectual development stages, are sequential but are not directly tied to chronological age (Antholz, 1972). Each stage has its characteristic tasks of growing and maturing. The second step in career guidance program formulation is to derive these tasks from theory and research on human development by abstracting from the literature those consistent with the rationale.

Drawing on the work of Piaget, Erikson, Havighurst, and other developmental psychologists, the CDC team defined a set of sequential career management tasks. These tasks connote a developing capacity on the part of the individuals to construct their experience and control their environment. Although the rationale for selection and placement of these tasks appears elsewhere (Tennyson et al., in press), they are presented here for kindergarten through post-high.

Tasks for the primary years are to: (a) acquire awareness of self, (b) gain a sense of control over one's life, (c) identify with workers, (d) acquire knowledge about workers, (e) acquire interpersonal skills,

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(f) objectify self before others, and (g) gain respect for other people and the work they do.

Tasks for the intermediate years are to: (a) develop a positive self-concept, (b) acquire the discipline of work, (c) identify with the concept of work as a valued institution, (d) increase knowledge about workers, (e) increase interpersonal skills, (f) increase objectification of self before others, and (g) value human dignity.

Tasks for the junior high years are to: (a) clarify self-concept, (b) assume responsibility for career planning, (c) formulate tentative career goals, (d) acquire knowledge of occupations, work settings, and life styles, (e) acquire knowledge of educational and occupational resources, (f) develop awareness of the decision-making process, and (g) acquire a sense of independence.

Tasks for the senior high years are to: (a) reality test the self-concept, (b) develop awareness of a preferred life style, (c) reformulate tentative career goals, (d) increase knowledge of and experience in occupations and work settings, (e) acquire knowledge of educational and vocational paths, (f) clarify the decision-making process as related to self, and (g) commit oneself with tentativeness within a changing world.

Tasks for the post-high years are to: (a) develop interpersonal skills essential to work, (b) develop information processing skills about self and work, (c) reintegrate the self, (d) acquire a sense of community, (e) commit oneself to the concept of career, (f) acquire the determination to participate in change, and (g) creatively apply management skills to life roles.

Step 3: Writing Program Objectives Stated in General Behavioral Terms

Conceptual statements of management tasks represent general abstractions of desirable behaviors for different periods of development and must be translated into objectives. Behavioral objectives represent a descending abstraction and further specification of the broader concepts, and they define the criteria for mastery of the career management tasks.

The CDC team wrote 90 general instructional objectives and 275 specific enabling objectives in order to give specificity to the career management tasks. Examples of the form of these objectives can be found in a series of field-tested resource guides providing a career development base for career education under such titles as "Life Styles and Work," "Values Identification," "Self-Concept Exploration," "Significant Others," and "The Social Contribution of Work" (Minnesota Department of Education, 1972). The conceptualization also has supported the development of career education programs, media, and materials in schools and colleges in Minnesota and several other states. Most recently it provided the rationale for a national career development project entitled *bread and butterflies* (Agency for Instructional Television, 1974).

Step 4: Stating Operational Definitions and Alternative Delivery Systems for Program Objectives

Instructional objectives are made evaluative by clarifying their meaning in terms of observable overt actions from which one infers desirable change. CDC staff believe that operationalizing program objectives is most appropriately done when a particular delivery system is being developed. Different delivery systems employing the same objectives will produce different behavioral reactions in the individual. In evaluating application of the CDC to *bread and butterflies*, for example, a research team found that the television film produced behavioral outcomes substantially different from those produced by other delivery components of the program.

The kinds of delivery systems or strategies for implementing program objectives will vary from one setting and level to another. It is important, however, that career guidance program planning include strategies or methods closely linked to clearly defined program goals, objectives, and management tasks. Among the strategies for career education delivery defined in the CDC are these: counseling (individual, group, peer); infusing through curriculum (modules, units, courses); exploratory work experiences (paid and volunteer); career information resource centers (career learning centers); multimedia approaches (TV, films, cassettes, simulations); hands-on experiences (integrating academic and vocational); exposure to role models (nontraditional careers and life styles); cross-age teaching (elementary schools, colleges, nursing homes); local in-service training (staff development); placement and follow-up (educational-vocational).

By linking implementation strategies to program goals and objectives, career guidance program planners have a better base for evaluation, which is a vital part of program formulation and decision making.

IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELING PERSONNEL

For Counselors

A self-development/career-management-based approach to career education such as the one just described requires leadership and commitment as well as new skills, roles, and relationships on the part of counseling personnel. If counselors are to take advantage of the opportunity to shape and influence career education programs through career guidance, they need a framework for intervention consistent with their long-established concern for human development. The career development conceptual model presented here provides one example of such a framework. It is not intended to be prescriptive but rather to suggest appropriate management tasks, objectives, and implementation strategies on which counselors could draw. While the model easily could be adapted to agency and adult counseling settings, its use thus far has been primarily in schools, community colleges, and liberal arts colleges.

The use of such a model will enable the counselor to become directly involved in career education program development and evaluation as a resource person for helping identify program goals, strategies, and media. It may also require active counselor participation in team teaching and systems change.

For Counselor Educators

That counselors have had only limited preparation to perform these kinds of functions is well known. Until counselor education programs significantly increase their preservice focus on career development, career education, and career counseling, the counselor will have to obtain knowledge and skills through in-service training.

But there are signs that counselor preparation institutions are beginning to offer more courses and give greater attention to these areas. One major action has been the recent creation of the ACES Commission on Counselor Preparation for Career Development. Some institutions are providing preservice students with more career counseling and career guidance program experience in their practicum and internship settings. A number of counselor educators have been involved in developing conceptual models, program materials, leadership institutes, and in-service workshops. Some have worked closely with teacher educators in infusing career development concepts and methods into teacher preparation. Still others have created programs to prepare career development specialists.

For counseling personnel to become the conscious managers of their own careers and help their clients do the same, both will need to engage in career self-assessment and begin viewing career development/career education as a broader concept of self-development and career task management, which is at the core of both client and counselor functioning. But if they are to become creative managers and decision-makers in their own work settings, counseling personnel will need to rethink their roles, become actively involved, acquire and use program development skills, and accept new delivery systems.

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NEW MYTHS: COUNSELORS BE WARY

Advice from John A. Sessions
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If career-oriented education is to be successful, guidance and counseling obviously must play a major part in the effort. But unless the guidance and counseling is realistic and informed, it can do more harm than good. There are a number of new myths of which counselors should be wary.

Myth # 1: *Somewhere out there in the world there is a perfect job for everyone, 100 percent satisfying, 0 percent frustrating.* If there were such a job, the counselor would no doubt rush out to apply for it. Students need to understand that no job is all fun, that all jobs have their good and their bad aspects. To give students other expectations is to prepare them for a lifetime of disappointment.

Myth # 2: *Every job carries with it a predetermined life style.* Wallace Stevens, the late vice president of the Hartford Insurance Company and one of the most distinguished poets of his generation, had apparently never heard of this principle. Neither has Eric Hoffer, the longshoreman/social critic. And neither had my carpenter grandfather, who in a crisis could have substituted for the conductor in most of the better-known Wagner operas. It is a mistake to job-type a student because the student likes baseball. That student might just grow up to be another such novelist as James T. Farrell!

Myth # 3: *Students should be encouraged to make career decisions as early as possible.* As soon as students' talents and probable life styles can be identified, this myth suggests, they should zero in on their life work. Quite to the contrary, guidance and counseling should help them avoid becoming locked into decisions that constitute the point of no return, the line beyond which one must pay another fare to get back on the subway of life.

Myth # 4: *Jobs can be arranged on "career ladders." You start at the bottom rung and work your way up to the top.* This is the modern version of the Horatio Alger rags-to-riches myth. I recently saw a career education plan that suggested, as a typical career education ladder, one in the health professions reaching from ward orderly to chief surgeon. It is doubtful that anyone has ever climbed that particular career ladder. Career ladders have become confused with their opposite: the pecking order.

Guidance and counseling personnel must never lose sight of the fact that the essential function of education is to broaden opportunities for the student whose life might otherwise be severely restricted. Education that narrows the student's options in life is a contradiction in terms, and counselors must never stop reminding both students and educators of this fact.

THE CAREER DEVELOPMENT CURRICULUM CAREER MANAGEMENT TASKS[1]

I. CAREER MANAGEMENT TASKS OF THE PRIMARY YEARS

1. Awareness of Self
2. Acquiring a Sense of Control Over One's Life
3. Identification with Workers
4. Acquiring Knowledge About Workers
5. Ability to Present One's Self Objectively
6. Acquiring Interpersonal Skills
7. Acquiring Respect for Other People and the Work They Do

II. CAREER MANAGEMENT TASKS OF THE INTERMEDIATE YEARS

1. Developing a Positive Self-Concept
2. Acquiring the Discipline of Work
3. Identification with the Concept of Work as a Valued Institution
4. Increasing Knowledge About Workers
5. Increasing Interpersonal Skills
6. Increasing Ability to Present One's Self Objectively
7. Valuing Human Dignity

III. CAREER MANAGEMENT TASKS OF THE JUNIOR HIGH YEARS

1. Clarification of Self-Concept
2. Assumption of Responsibility for Career Planning
3. Formulation of Tentative Career Goals
4. Acquiring Knowledge of Occupations, Work Settings, and Life Styles
5. Acquiring Knowledge of Educational and Vocational Resources
6. Awareness of Decision-Making Process
7. Acquiring a Sense of Independence

IV. CAREER MANAGEMENT TASKS OF THE SENIOR HIGH YEARS

1. Reality Testing of a Self-Concept
2. Awareness of Preferred Life Styles
3. Re-formulation of Tentative Career Goals
4. Increasing Knowledge of and Experience in Occupations and Work Settings
5. Acquiring Knowledge of Educational and Vocational Patterns
6. Clarification of the Decision-Making Process as Related to Self
7. Commitment with Tentativeness Within a Changing World

V. CAREER MANAGEMENT TASKS OF THE POST-HIGH YEARS

1. Re-assessing and Clarifying Self
2. Exploration of Preferred Occupational and Life Style Alternatives
3. Acquiring Information Seeking and Processing Skills
4. Developing Competency and Interpersonal Skills to Relate to Work Organizations
5. Making a Tentative Commitment to the Next Stage
6. Acquiring Responsible Independence and the Skills to Manage Change in Self and Society
7. Creative Application of Management Skills to Life Roles

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[1] Tennyson, W. W.; Hansen, L. S.; Klaurens, M. S.; and Antholz, M. K., Educating for Career Development, St. Paul, Minn.: State Department of Education, 1975.

BORN FREE: "A World of Options" (Videotape)

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

B. Objective: Identifying traditional and nontraditional female and male roles in the world of work.

1. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants view the half-hour color videotape "BORN FREE: A World of Options."

c. Four developmental themes are identified in the tape: expectations, socialization, choices, and changes. Discuss in small groups of five or six the messages shared by the interviewees regarding the four themes. Some suggested questions for discussion are listed below. For more detailed questions, see Project BORN FREE, Video Viewers' Guide No. 1: BORN FREE: A World of Options.

1) What unique messages came from the adult women in the tape?
2) Why are Dr. Jeanette Piccard's words especially poignant?
3) What unique messages came from the adult men?
4) Were the messages different depending on race or class?
5) What impression does the kindergarten boy give about differences between boys and girls?
6) What are the reasons that the corporate executive gives for wanting to move "down the up staircase"?
7) In what ways are these people representative of American society at large? In what ways are they not?
8) What are the gains and losses of people changing careers and lifestyles?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes for tape
30 minutes for discussion

Resources Needed:

Materials: Videotape No. 1, "BORN FREE: A World of Options"
Video Viewers' Guide No. 1: BORN FREE: A World of Options

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will write the main generalizations which might be derived from each of the four developmental themes of the tape.

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-L

I.B.2.

"Work Force Quiz"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

B. Objective: Identify traditional and nontraditional female and male roles in the world of work.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy can help raise the participants' awareness of the current status of women and men in the world of work. Appropriate as a thought-provoking and non-threatening activity, it could be best utilized in the beginning of a training sequence. Be sure to allow enough discussion time for the participants followng the activity. This is important for idea sharing and clarification.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Workshop participants each receive a copy of the "U.S.A. Work Force Information Quiz" and fill in their best estimates of the correct answers.

c. After everyone has completed the quiz, the group members should reach a consensus on which answers are correct, discussing both the answers and the reasoning which led them to their conclusions.

d. The consensus answers should be posted on the chalkboard or a piece of newsprint before the correct answers are posted.

e. Discuss the correct answers (see next page).

f. Reactions to any unexpected results, etc., should then be discussed by the group and considered in the context of existing and ideal career patterns and choices for women and men.

g. Hand out excerpts from "Fact Pack" in this packet for use as a follow-up reading.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Materials: Pencils, pens, chalkboard and chalk or newsprint and felt-tip markers
Handouts: "U.S.A. Work Force Information Quiz"
Excerpts form "Fact Pack"

References: Council on Interracial Books for Children (1975), Hayghe (1976), U.S. Dept. of Labor (1975), Verheyden-Hilliard (1976)

Outcome Criterion:

After the completion of the Work Force Quiz and the subsequent discussion, participants will write a brief assessment of the current status of women and men in the work force.

U.S.A. WORK FORCE INFORMATION QUIZ

1. _____% of the total United States work force are women.

a. 25 b. 40 c. 60 d. 75

2. Of all women between the ages of 18 and 64, approximately ____% are in the work force.

a. 15 b. 35 c. 55 d. 75

3. Of all married women, approximately ____% are in the work force.

a. 10 b. 45 c. 60 d. 80

4. Married women, on average, hold jobs outside the home for ____ years.

a. 5 b. 10 c. 15 d. 25

5. _____ out of 10 married women will be employed outside the home for some time.

a. 3 b. 5 c. 6 d. 9

6. In recent years, more than _____% of mothers held paying jobs.

a. 8 b. 25 c. 40 d. 50

7. In 1974, of the more than 37,000 highly paid airline pilots in the United States, _____ were Black.

a. around 10 b. less than 100 c. around 1000 d. more than 2,500

8. In the second quarter of 1975, unemployment among all whites in the work force was 8.0%; among all other racial groups, the overall unemployment figure was _____% during this period.

a. 8.9 b. 10.5 c. 14.3 d. 20.1

9. In 1975, ____% of all families with both husband and wife living in the home fit the traditional pattern of the husband alone as family breadwinner; both husband and wife held jobs outside the home in ____% of these families.

a. 34,41 b. 45,30 c. 52,23 d. 66,9

10. In recent years, around ____% of all men in the work force earned $10,000 or more, and around ____% of all women in the work force earned the same amount.

a. 32,25 b. 40,10 c. 55,35 d. 30,30

11. Around ____% of all architects and lawyers in the United States are men.

a. 45 b. 65 c. 75 d. 95

12. The median income of fully employed women who have earned a college degree is less than that of the median income of fully employed men with a/an _________________ education.

a. 8th grade b. high school c. college d. graduate

13. Of all the women in the work force, ____% have clerical or personal service jobs.

a. 30 b. 40 c. 50 d. 60

14. Of the 23,000 different occupations available in the U.S.A., 1/3 of all working women can be found in ____ of these occupations.

a. 7 b. 396 c. 3,481 d. 15,216

Answer Key, U.S.A. Work Force Information Quiz

1. b
2. c
3. c
4. d
5. d
6. c
7. b
8. c
9. a
10. b
11. d
12. a
13. c
14. a (retail salesclerk, secretary, household worker, elementary school teacher, bookkeeper, waitress, nurse.)

"Life Style Activities and Occupations Survey[1]

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

B. Objective: Identify traditional and nontraditional female and male roles in the world of work.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity is designed to help participants focus on their own attitudes regarding sex roles for females and males. It should be noted that a supportive group may be needed to make this activity successful. If most group members respond in a similar manner (e.g., according to societal stereotypes or in a quite nonstereotyped way), the other group member(s) could feel threatened. The survey is to stimulate thinking and to facilitate the gathering of baseline date, not to label members.

This strategy is related to IV.B.1., "Home on the Electric Range."

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of strategy.

b. Pass out copies of the survey.

c. Instruct participants that the survey is intended for individual use as a pre-and posttest, but that the resposnes will be discussed in small groups.

d. Section I (Pretest) will be completed at the beginning of the workshop; participants will complete Section II (Posttest) at the end of the workshop and note if they have changed any of their responses to particular items.

e. When taking the posttest, participants should cover their pretest answers.

f. After completion of Section I (pretest) and Section II (posttest), discuss the ratings. Some suggested questions for discussion are listed below:

   1) Did you rate any particular items as being appropriately done by males only? If so, which items? Do these items refer to roles traditionally assumed by males?

   2) Did you rate any particular items as being appropriately done by females only? If so, which items? Do these items refer to roles traditionally assumed by females?

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[1] This learning strategy is adapted from: T. L. Teeson, Attitudes concerning lifestyle activities and occupational interests: Perceptions of role-appropriate choices of junior high school students. Unpublished Master's Thesis. University of Minnesota, 1977.

3) Were there any differences in your ratings for males and females, in general, compared to your ratings of your own ability to perform the various life style activities? Were any of these differences related to your sex? Please discuss.

4) In which occupations did you indicate possible interest? Were your occupational choices heavily dominated by your same sex?

5) Did any of your answers change from the pretest to the posttest? If so, which ones? Why?

Minimum Time Required: Pretest: approximately 45 minutes
Posttest: approximately 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Life Style Activities and Occupations Survey"
Reference: Teeson (1977)

Outcome Criterion:

Fifty percent or more of participants' posttest ratings of life style activities and occupations will be rated as appropriately done by BOTH MALES and FEMALES.

LIFE STYLE ACTIVITIES AND OCCUPATIONS SURVEY

DIRECTIONS: Please read through the following list of life style activities and decide which are appropriately done by MALES, FEMALES, or BOTH MALES and FEMALES. Place an M in the blank by those items you feel are appropriately done by MALES, an F by those appropriately done by FEMALES, or a B by BOTH MALES AND FEMALES. Mark your answers in the column labeled Pretest which precedes the items. NOTE: Your answers should relect your own views about what you think is appropriate, not what societal norms say is appropriate.

PART A

Section I Pretest	Section II Posttest	Item	Section I Pretest	Section II Posttest
(Mark M, F or B)			(Mark + or -)	
		1. Sweep floors		
		2. Clean the garage		
		3. Wash dishes		
		4. Fix broken windows		
		5. Change flat tires		
		6. Prepare meals		
		7. Mend clothing		
		8. Shovel snow		
		9. Take out the garbage		
		10. Wash floors		
		11. Make beds		
		12. Dust furniture		
		13. Make repairs around the house		
		14. Knit and sew		
		15. Build things		
		16. Make car repairs		

Now, whether you have actually done these activities or not, decide which activities you feel you are able to do. Place a + after each of the above 16 items that you feel you are able to do, or a - after each item you feel you are not able to do. Mark your answers in the column labeled Pretest, which follows the items.

PART B

DIRECTIONS: Please read through the following list of occupations and decide which are appropriately held by MALES, FEMALES, or BOTH MALES AND FEMALES. Place an M in the blank by those items you feel are appropriately held by MALES, an F by those appropriately held by FEMALES, or a B by those activities appropriately held by BOTH MALES and FEMALES. Mark your answers in the column labeled Pretest which precedes the items column. NOTE: Your answers should reflect your own views about what you think is appropriate, not what societal norms say is appropriate.

Section I Pretest (Mark M, F	Section II Posttest or B)	Item	Section I Pretest (Mark + or -	Section II Posttest)
		1. Plumber		
		2. Police Officer		
		3. Store Salesclerk		
		4. Truck Driver		
		5. Flight Attendant		
		6. Nurse		
		7. Farmer		
		8. Counselor		
		9. Secretary		
		10. Doctor		
		11. Private Household Worker		
		12. Model		
		13. School Principal		
		14. Real Estate Agent		
		15. Insurance Agent		
		16. Sewing Machine Operator		
		17. older		
		18. Restaurant Manager		

If you had the necessary training needed for each of the above occupations, which ones would you like to do? Please place a + after each of the occupations you might like to do, or a - after those occupations you would not like to do. Mark each occupation with either a + or a - in the column labeled Pretest which follows the items.

P/E SR-M
CD-L TL-L

"Psycho-Social Visit"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

B. Objective: Identify traditional and nontraditional female and male roles in the world of work.

4. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity is designed to provide workshop participants with first-hand information about men's and women's roles in various occupational settings. Besides providing extensive comparative data about individual career development, the activity can offer an opportunity to explore an organization's impact on the career development of its employees.

It is particularly important to note that extensive pre-planning will be necessary for this activity (e.g., contacting businesses, arranging schedules, etc.). Usually phone calls, letters, or personal meetings will be adequate to assess the potential benefits which participants will receive from a visit to a particular business or industry.

Since some companies are fearful of discrimination suits, any questions about women or minorities may be threatening to them. Therefore, it may be important to emphasize that the information is to be used solely for educational purposes in a workshop.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of strategy.

b. Distribute a copy of "Guidelines for Psycho-Social Visit to Business or Industry" to each participant.

c. Discuss the Guidelines, emphasizing that the interview(s) during the visit can focus on one or more of the topics listed below:

   1) The perspectives of employees regarding their (a) position in the organization, (b) feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the job, and (c) career development history.

   2) An overview of the organization as a whole (e.g., career development opportunities, hierarchical structure, and communication patterns.

   3) Some combination of (1) and (2).

d. Discuss specific arrangements for the visits to the organizations.

e. Discuss plans for reconvening the participants in small heterogeneous groups to discuss their experiences at the organizations.

1) Discussion groups will consist of 4 to 6 people, each having visited a different work site.

2) An alternate (though less desirable) discussion group format is for all people who visited a particular site to share their impressions with each other.

f. Participants make their visits to sites.

g. Convene the small discussion groups to share the major impressions from their site visits. A recorder for each group will write these on a sheet of newspaper or newsprint.

h. In the large group, each of the small groups will share five or more of the major points which they discussed. The workshop leader will record these on newsprint or a blackboard.

i. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes for introductory discussion
2-5 hours outside the workshop setting to prepare for and carry out the site visit
1 1/2 hours for small group and full-group discussion

Resources Needed:

Materials: Paper, pencils, newsprint or chalkboard, felt-tip pen or chalk
Handout: "Guidelines for Psycho-Social Visit to Business or Industry"
Reference: Terkel (1974)

Outcome Criteria:

Upon completion of their psycho-social visits and discussions, participants will list: 1) six to eight important individual impressions from their psycho-social visits and 2) three to five unifying themes generated from the large-group discussion.

GUIDELINES FOR

PSYCHO-SOCIAL VISIT TO BUSINESS OR INDUSTRY

The questions listed below are intended to serve as a guide for a visit to a business or industry in which you focus on some of the psycho-social aspects of work in relation to sex roles and career development.

By "psycho-social" we mean sociological factors (how the company is organized, number of employees, etc.) as well as psychological factors (psychological impact of the work organization on the worker, the workers themselves, their feelings about their jobs) rather than factors related to the product or service provided by the business.

You are then to prepare your findings to present to the class. In your presentation you should include a) your observations and b) your reactions (analysis and feelings) to the business and industry.

Since some companies are fearful of discrimination suits, any questions about women or minorities may appear threatening to them. Therefore, it might be important to emphasize that the information is to be used solely for educational purposes in a workshop.

Note: The questions which follow are intended as suggestions for you when you develop your interview format. You do not have to use them all. In fact, it would be impossible to cover all of these in a single half-day visit. If there is a group of visitors, questions can be divided up.

Questions
(For the business as a whole)

Purpose

1. What is the main purpose, function, product or service of the business or industry? Has this always been true? Is it expected to change?

Organization

1. What is the general staff organization?

2. How many employees are in the company? What percent are males and females? What percent are minority females and males? What percent are physically disabled?

   What is the age range and average age?

   What is the length of time of employment for the average person in the company?

3. What kinds of levels are represented (entry, mid-level, top)? What kinds of occupations are represented?

   How are the females, males, and minorities distributed throughout the various levels and various kinds of jobs? (Collect percentage data for each if you can.)

4. How democratic or authoritarian is the organization? To what extent are workers at all levels involved in decision-making? Is extent of involvement different for women and minorities? Are there any differences in women and minorities in their preference for decision-making modes? (For example, one administrator said that since he has hired more women, he has been forced to become more democratic.)

5. What are the communication patterns? Is information disseminated to all or to only a few? How is information disseminated?

6. Is the plant unionized? What impact does the union have? Has the union been supportive of women and minorities? If so, how?

Hiring and Promotion

1. What kinds of training and/or education are required for the jobs represented?

2. What is the company doing to achieve equal opportunity for minorities and women? Are there special training programs for women and minorities? If so, have they been successful or not? What are the ingredients involved in the success or failure?

3. Who does the hiring? Are there stated policies on hiring practices? Are search committees used? Where are the positions advertised? Who makes the final decision on hiring a person?

4. What are the criteria for promotion? Are there stated policies? Is an attempt made to give equal opportunity to minorities and women in promotion?

5. Are there "job enrichment" or career ladder programs? If so, what are they? Is there a particular effort made to direct these to the needs of women and minorities?

6. Are there some jobs that are considered more appropriate for women than men and vice versa? Are there some jobs that are considered more appropriate for minority women than minority men and vice versa?

Climate

1. What do the tone and morale appear to be like in the company?

2. Are feelings about women and minorities polarized or is there a cooperative spirit? Do males fear or resent competition from women? Do women resent men because they (the women) feel discriminated against? Is race an issue?

   If the answers require a company response, is the company doing anything about it?

3. Are the women aware of discrimination? If so, how do they feel about it?

Management Concerns

1. What are some of the main concerns of management? (Productivity, equal employment, hiring "qualified" persons, turnover, burden of government regulations regarding affirmative action, etc.)

   What is management doing to respond to its concerns?

2. How could business, industry, labor, and schools and colleges work together to promote broader career options?

Affirmative Action

1. Does the company have an affirmative action policy? If so, what is it?

2. How does managment feel about affirmative action? How do employees feel about affirmative action?

3. Is there serious support from the top levels for affirmative action?

4. If they have affirmative action, how successful do they think it has been?

5. Is eliminating sex bias a priority over eliminating race bias or vice versa? Or is there equal emphasis on both?

6. Are there any awareness programs to sensitize all employees to factors involved in opening up career options? If there are such programs, what are the goals and components?

Questions
(For employees and their work)

Position

1. What is your present position?

2. What kinds of education and/or training were required for that position?

3. What are the most highly developed skills required in your job? How did you acquire them?

4. What aspects of your education or training have you used or not used? What aspects were necessary for getting the job but not used? What would you take differently in school or training if you were going to do it again?

   From whom did you get help in planning or preparing for this field? Were women and men equally helpful?

   What kinds of pressures have you faced in getting to this point? What kinds of help? What have been the most significant influences (positive and negative) in your career planning (people, experiences, events)?

5. What is the biggest responsibility you have? What are the most important decisions you are required to make? What is an example of the worst consequences of your making a wrong decision? How much pressure did this put you under? If you had been born the other sex, do you think you would have handled this differently? Would the decisions you were required to make have been different?

6. Is your salary comparable to that of individuals in other occupations with the same educational requirements, skills, responsibility? Is your salary comparable to that of women, men, minorities in occupations with the same educational requirements, skills, responsibility?

7. How typical is your job here to that of others working in the same vocation elsewhere?

Life Style Associated with Job

1. What kind of life style is associated with this job? Is there much travel required during the first few years? Later years? Is there a lot of pressure? Are there frequent relocations? Other areas: overtime, evening work, time for leisure, set hours, own boss, etc.

   If you were the other sex, would these affect you differently?

2. What proportion of your time on the job is actually spent in what kinds of activities? If you were the other sex, do you think it would be different?

Satisfaction

1. How satisfied are you with your vocation? With your particular job here? How important is your job to you in terms of total satisfaction with life? Would you enter the same vocation again? If you had been born the other sex, do you think you would have chosen this vocation?

2. What aspects of your job provide you with the most satisfaction? The least? Do you think it would have been different if you had been born the other sex? Another race?

Marital Status

1. Has your marital status affected your position or your satisfaction with it? If so, how?

2. If married, how do you see your marriage and work fitting together? What are the satisfactions, dissatisfactions? Are there difficulties you encounter? If so, what are they? What would make it easier or prevent the difficulties?

Goals

1. What was your first job in your career? What other jobs have you held? Would it have been different if you had been the other sex? Another race? Physically disabled?

2. To what extent is your present position the kind of thing you really like to do? Where do you hope to be five or ten years from now? Twenty years? What do you think will be most helpful in assisting you in getting there? What will be the greatest obstacles?

3. How many who started where you did made it to where you are now? What happened to those who didn't make it to where you are?

4. Referring to number 2 above, what proportion of the individuals at your level now will make it to that point ten or twenty years from now? What will happen to the ones who don't? Would your answer be different for people of the other sex or another race?

5. What are the major decisions facing you at this point in your life? Would the decisions be different if you were the other sex? Another race? Disabled?

6. Are you concerned about balancing job and family responsibilities? If so, to what extent does your company facilitate or hinder that?

7. Do you see this work as a lifelong one or as a stepping-stone to some other job or occupation?

Advancement and promotion

1. What are the opportunities for advancement on this job or in this company?

2. What does it take to advance in your field? Additional education? Socializing? Politicking? Is race, sex, age, income level, or marital status a factor?

3. Are you seeking advancement? If so, what steps are you taking toward that?

4. How easy or difficult would it be for you to get a similar job in another business, industry, or setting?

Discrimination

1. Do women, or do minority men and women have an equal chance to enter your field? To get ahead? What about people who are physically disabled?

2. Have you felt any discrimination because of your sex or race? If so, describe. Do you think the organization is making serious efforts in affirmative action? If so, what have they done?

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-L

"The Joy of Choosing"- (Videotape)

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

B. Objective: Identify traditional and nontraditional female and male roles in the world of work.

5. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants view the half-hour color videotape "The Joy of Choosing."

c. This tape portrays a variety of individuals who have made many choices in their lives. Some were quite traditional while others were not. Discuss in groups of five to six the ideas generated by the people portrayed. Suggested questions are:

1) Was there anyone on this tape with whom you could identify? Who? Why?

2) What are some of the obstacles faced by women engaged in nontraditional careers?

3) What are some of the obstacles faced by men engaged in nontraditional careers?

4) What types of risks have you taken? What rewards have resulted?

5) What type of problems can result when one member of a relationship chooses to change? Discuss the ways the families mentioned on the tape grew as a result of these changes.

6) What types of support do people in nontraditional fields mention? What type of support does the homemaker have?

7) What impression does the kindergarten boy give as to the age when children become aware of sex roles?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes for tape
30 minutes for discussion

Resources Needed:

Materials: Videotape No. 4, "The Joy of Choosing"
Video Viewers' Guide No. 4: The Joy of Choosing

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will write a paragraph discussing one important choice they made and the risks involved.

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-L

I.C.1.

"Myths and Realities"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

C. Objective: Investigate and discuss the limitations which traditional stereotypes of femininity and masculinity place on career options.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

The whole area of sex differences is controversial, and it is important to approach the subject from the perspective of the tentativeness of the findings. For that reason, we have included not only the Maccoby and Jacklin article but also Block's review of the Maccoby and Jacklin findings. The leader may wish to use this as a resource.

Instructions:

a. Have participants read excerpts from Maccoby and Jacklin (attached). After reading the article, break into small groups of five to six people and share their reactions and feelings to the readings.

b. Suggested discussion questions are as follows:

   1) What was your initial reaction to reading this article?

   2) Did any particular finding strike you as being true? As being false? If so, which ones?

   3) How did you feel about Maccoby and Jacklin's statements concerning unfounded beliefs about sex differences?

   4) Did you agree with the authors' statements on fairly well-established sex differences?

   5) Are conclusions about sex differences applicable to various racial groups? Were studies based on more than one racial group?

c. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/2 hours

Resources Needed:

Handout: "What We Know and Don't Know About Sex Differences" (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974)

Attached Article: "Debatable Conclusions About Sex Differences" (Block, 1976)

Outcome Criterion:

After reading and discussing the Maccoby-Jacklin and Block excerpts, the participants will state and defend their own attitudes and beliefs concerning sex differences.

MYTH, REALITY AND SHADES OF GRAY:
WHAT WE KNOW AND DON'T KNOW ABOUT SEX DIFFERENCES[1]

by Eleanor Emmons Maccoby and Carol Naby Jacklin

In a dispassionate look at all the evidence, two researchers lay the state of our psychological knowledge out flat. Yes, girls differ from boys, but...

The physical differences between men and women are obvious and universal. The psychological differences are not. Yet people hold strong beliefs about sex differences, even when those beliefs fail to find any scientific support.

Some popular views of sex differences are captured in a scene from the Rodgers and Hammerstein musical, *Carousel*. A young man discovers he is to be a father. He rhapsodizes about the kind of son he expects to have. The boy will be tall and tough as a tree, and no one will dare to boss him around. It will be all right for his mother to teach him manners, but she mustn't make a sissy out of him. The boy will be good at wrestling, and able to herd cattle, run a riverboat, drive spikes.

Then the prospective father realizes, with a start, that the child may be a girl. The music moves to a gentle theme. She will have ribbons in her hair. She will be sweet and petite, just like her mother, and suitors will flock around her. There's a slightly discordant note, introduced for comic relief from sentimentality, when the expectant father brags that she'll be half again as bright as girls are meant to be. But then he returns to the main theme: his daughter will need to be protected.

The lyrics in this scene reflect some common cultural stereotypes. There are also some less well-known stereotypes in the social science literature on sex differences. We believe there is a great deal of myth in both the popular and scientific views about male-female differences. There is also some substance.

In order to find out which generalizations are justified and which are not, we spent three years compiling, reviewing and interpreting a very large body of research--over 2,000 books and articles--on the sex differences in motivation, social behavior, and intellectual ability. We examined negative as well as positive evidence. At the end of our exhaustive and exhausting search, we were able to determine which beliefs about sex differences are supported by evidence, which beliefs have no support, and which are still inadequately tested.

First, the myths.

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[1] From: Psychology Today, December 1974, pp. 109-112. Permission to reprint granted by Maccoby.

MYTH ONE: GIRLS ARE MORE "SOCIAL" THAN BOYS

There is no evidence that girls are more likely than boys to be concerned with people, as opposed to impersonal objects or abstract ideas. The two sexes are equally interested in social stimuli (e.g., human faces and voices), and are equally proficient at learning by imitating models. They are equally responsive to social rewards such as praise from others, and neither sex consistently learns better for this form of reward than for other forms.

In childhood, girls are no more dependent than boys on their caretakers, and boys are no more willing than girls to remain alone. Girls do not spend more time with playmates; the opposite is true, at least at certain ages. The two sexes appear to be equally adept at understanding the emotional reactions and needs of others, although measures of this ability have been narrow.

Any differences that do exist in the sociability of the two sexes are more of kind than of degree. Boys are highly oriented toward a peer group and congregate in larger groups; girls associate in pairs or small groups of children their own age, and may be somewhat more oriented toward adults, although the evidence on this is weak.

MYTH TWO: GIRLS ARE MORE SUGGESTIBLE THAN BOYS

Boys are as likely as girls to imitate other people spontaneously. The two sexes are equally susceptible to persuasive communications, and in face-to-face situations where there is social pressure to conform to a group judgment about an ambiguous situation, there are usually no sex differences in susceptibility. When there are, girls are somewhat more likely to adapt their own judgments to those of the group, although some studies find the reverse. Boys, on the other hand, appear to be more likely to accept peer group values when these conflict with their own.

MYTH THREE: GIRLS HAVE LOWER SELF-ESTEEM THAN BOYS

Boys and girls are very similar in overall self-satisfaction and self-confidence throughout childhood and adolescence. (The information on childhood is meager, but what there is indicates no sex difference.) The sexes do differ in the areas in which they report greatest self-confidence. Girls rate themselves higher in the area of social competence, while boys more often see themselves as strong, powerful, dominant, potent.

Through most of the school years, boys and girls are equally likely to believe they can influence their own fate, as opposed to falling victim to chance. During the college years (not earlier or later), men have a greater sense of control over their destiny, and are more optimistic in predicting their own performance on a variety of school-related tasks. However, this does not imply a generally lower level of self-esteem among women of this age.

MYTH FOUR: GIRLS LACK MOTIVATION TO ACHIEVE

In the pioneering studies of achievement motivation, girls were more likely to report imagery about achievement when asked to make up stories to describe ambiguous pictures, as long as the instructions did not stress either competition or social comparison. Boys need to be challenged by appeals to their ego or competitive feelings, for their achievement imagery to reach the level of girls'. Although boys' achievement motivation does appear to be more responsive to competitive arousal, that does not imply that they have a higher level of achievement motivation in general. In fact, when researchers observe behavior that denotes a motive to achieve, they find no sex differences or find girls to be superior.

MYTH FIVE: GIRLS ARE BETTER AT ROTE LEARNING AND SIMPLE REPETITIVE TASKS. BOYS ARE BETTER AT HIGH-LEVEL TASKS THAT REQUIRE THEM TO INHIBIT PREVIOUSLY LEARNED RESPONSES

Neither sex is more susceptible to simple conditioning, in which stimuli become connected with responses in what is assumed to be a rather automatic process. Neither sex excels in rote-learning tasks, such as learning to associate one word with another. Boys and girls are equally proficient at tasks that call on them to inhibit various responses, e.g., discrimination of certain items from others, a task requiring the subject to avoid attending or responding to irrelevant cues.

Boys are somewhat more impulsive during the preschool years, but after that the sexes do not differ in ability to wait for a delayed reward or inhibit early, incorrect responses, or on other measures of impulsivity.

MYTH SIX: BOYS ARE MORE "ANALYTIC" THAN GIRLS

The sexes do not differ on tests of cognitive style that measure one's ability to analyze, i.e., the ability to respond to a particular aspect of a situation without being influenced by the context, or restructure the elements of a problem in order to achieve a solution. Boys and girls are equally likely to respond to contextual aspects of a situation that are irrelevant to the task at hand. Boys are superior only on problems that require visual discrimination or manipulation of objects set in a larger context; this superiority seems to be accounted for by spatial ability, which we discuss below, and does not imply a general analytic superiority.

MYTH SEVEN: GIRLS ARE MORE AFFECTED BY HEREDITY, BOYS BY ENVIRONMENT

Male identical twins are intellectually more alike than female identical twins, but the two sexes resemble their parents to the same degree. Boys are more vulnerable to damage by a variety of harmful agents in the environment both before and after birth, but this does not mean that they are more affected by environmental influences in general.

The two sexes learn with equal facility in a wide variety of situations. If learning is the primary means by which the environment affects us, then the two sexes are equivalent in this regard.

MYTH EIGHT: GIRLS ARE "AUDITORY," BOYS "VISUAL"

Male and female infants do not seem to respond differently to sounds. At most ages, boys and girls are equally adept at discriminating speech sounds. There is no sex difference in memory for sounds previously heard.

No study shows a sex difference among newborns in time spent looking at visual stimuli. During the first year of life, neither sex emerges clearly as more responsive to what they see. From infancy to adulthood, the sexes exhibit a similar degree of interest in visual stimuli. They also seem to be alike in ability to discriminate among objects, identify shapes, estimate distances, and perform on a variety of other tests of visual perception.

Our examination of the social science literature also revealed some sex differences that are fairly well-established.

DIFFERENCE ONE: MALES ARE MORE AGGRESSIVE THAN FEMALES

A sex difference in aggression has been observed in all cultures in which aggressive behavior has been observed. Boys are more aggressive physically and verbally. They engage in mock-fighting and aggressive fantasies as well as direct forms of aggression more frequently than girls. The sex difference manifests itself as soon as social play begins, at age two or two and a half. From an early age, the primary victims of male aggression are other males, not females.

Although both sexes become less aggressive with age, boys and men remain more aggressive through the college years. Little information is available for older adults.

DIFFERENCE TWO: GIRLS HAVE GREATER VERBAL ABILITY THAN BOYS

Girls' verbal abilities probably mature somewhat more rapidly in early life, although a number of recent studies find no sex differences. During the period from preschool to early adolescence, the sexes are very similar in their verbal abilities. But at about age 11, they begin to diverge; female superiority increases through high school, and possibly beyond. Girls score higher on tasks that involve understanding and producing language, and on "high-level" verbal tasks (analogies, comprehension of difficult written material, creative writing) as well as "lower-level" measures (such as fluency and spelling).

DIFFERENCE THREE: BOYS EXCEL IN VISUAL-SPATIAL ABILITY

Visual-spatial ability involves the visual perception of figures or objects in space and how they are related to each other. One visual-spatial test has the subject inspect a three-dimensional pile of blocks, and estimate the number of surfaces visible from a perspective different than his own. Another has him look at a figure, then select one from a set of four that matches the original if rotated in a plane. Male superiority on visual-spatial tasks is not found in childhood, but appears fairly consistently in adolescence and adulthood, and increases through the high-school years. The sex differences are approximately equal on analytic tasks (those that require separation of an element from its background) and nonanalytic ones.

DIFFERENCE FOUR: BOYS EXCEL IN MATHEMATICAL ABILITY

The two sexes are similar in their early acquisition of quantitative concepts and their mastery of arithmetic in grade school. Beginning at about age 12 or 13, however, boys' mathematical skills increase faster than girls'. The greater rate of improvement does not seem to be entirely due to the fact that boys take more math courses, although the question has not been extensively studied.

The magnitude of the sex difference varies depending on the study, and is probably not as great as the difference in spatial ability. Both visual-spatial and verbal processes are sometimes involved in solving math problems; some problems can be solved in either way, while others cannot, a fact that may help to explain why the size of the sex difference varies from one study to another.

On some questions, we found ambiguous findings or too little evidence on which to base conclusions. These questions are still open to further research.

QUESTION ONE: ARE THERE DIFFERENCES IN TACTILE SENSITIVITY?

Most studies of tactile sensitivity in infancy or ability to perceive by touch at later ages do not show sex differences. When differences are found, girls are more sensitive, but since this finding is rare, we cannot be confident that it is meaningful. Most studies in which the results are analyzed by sex deal with newborns; more work is needed with other ages.

QUESTION TWO: ARE THERE DIFFERENCES IN FEAR, TIMIDITY AND ANXIETY?

Studies that involve direct observation of fearful behavior usually do not find sex differences. But teacher ratings and self-reports usually reveal girls as more timid or more anxious. The problem with self-reports is that we do not know whether the results reflect real differences, or only differences in people's willingness to report anxiety.

Since the very willingness to assert that one is afraid may lead to fearful behavior, the problem may turn out to be unimportant. But it would be desirable to have measures other than self-reports, which now contribute most of the data from early school age on.

QUESTION THREE: IS ONE SEX MORE ACTIVE THAN THE OTHER?

Sex differences in activity level do not appear in infancy. They begin to show up when children reach the age of social play. Some studies find that during the preschool years, boys tend to be more active, but many studies do not find a sex difference. This discrepancy may be partially traceable to the kind of situation in which measurements are made. Boys appear to be especially stimulated to bursts of high activity when other boys are present. But the exact way in which the situation controls activity level remains to be established.

Activity level is also affected by motivational states--fear, anger, curiosity--and therefore is of limited usefulness in identifying stable individual or group differences. We need more detailed observations of the vigor and quality of children's play.

QUESTION FOUR: IS ONE SEX MORE COMPETITIVE THAN THE OTHER?

Some studies find boys to be more competitive than girls, but many find the sexes to be similar in this regard. Almost all the research on competition has involved situations in which competition is maladaptive. For example, two people might be asked to play the prisoner's dilemma game, in which they have to choose between competitive strategies that are attractive to the individual in the short run, and cooperative strategies that maximize both players' gains in the long run. In such situations, the sexes are equally cooperative.

In settings where competitiveness produces greater individual rewards, males might be more competitive than females, but this is a guess based on common-sense considerations, such as the male interest in competitive sports, and not on research in controlled settings. The age of the subject and the identity of the opponent no doubt make a difference too; there is evidence that young women hesitate to compete against their boyfriends.

QUESTION FIVE: IS ONE SEX MORE DOMINANT THAN THE OTHER?

Dominance appears to be more of an issue in boys' groups than in girls' groups. Boys make more attempts to dominate each other than do girls. They also more often attempt to dominate adults.

But the dominance relations between the sexes are complex. In childhood, the segregation of play groups by sex means that neither sex frequently tries to dominate the other; there is little opportunity. When experimental situations bring the two sexes together, it is not clear whether one sex is more successful in influencing the behavior of the other. In mixed adult groups or pairs, formal leadership tends to go to the males in the early stages of an interaction, but the longer the relationship lasts, the more equal influence becomes.

QUESTION SIX: IS ONE SEX MORE COMPLIANT THAN THE OTHER?

During childhood, girls tend to be more obedient to the commands and directions of adults. But this compliance does not carry over into relationships with peers. Boys are especially concerned with maintaining their status in their peer group, and therefore are probably more vulnerable than girls to pressures and challenges from that group, although this has not been well-established. It is not clear that in adult interactions, one sex is consistently more willing to comply with the wishes of the other.

QUESTION SEVEN: ARE NURTURANCE AND "MATERNAL" BEHAVIOR MORE TYPICAL OF ONE SEX?

There is very little information about the tendencies of boys and girls to be nurturant or helpful toward younger children or animals. Cross-cultural work does indicate that girls between six and ten are more often seen behaving nurturantly. In our own society, the rare studies that report nurturant behavior involve observation of free play among nursery-school children. These studies do not find sex differences, but the setting usually does not include children who are much younger than the subjects being observed. It may be that the presence of younger children would elicit sex differences in nurturant behavior.

Very little information exists on how adult men respond to infants and children, so we can't say whether adult females are more disposed to behave maternally than adult males are to behave paternally. But if there is a sex difference, it does not generalize to a greater female tendency to behave altruistically. Studies of people's willingness to help others in distress have sometimes found men to be more helpful, sometimes women, depending on the identity of the person needing help and the kind of help that is required. Overall, the sexes seem similar in degree of altruism.

QUESTION EIGHT: ARE FEMALES MORE PASSIVE THAN MALES?

The answer is complex, but for the most part negative. The two sexes are highly alike in their willingness to explore a novel environment, when they both have freedom to do so. Both sexes are highly responsive to social situations of all kinds, and although some individuals tend to withdraw from social interaction and simply watch from the sidelines, they are as likely to be male as female.

We said earlier that girls are more likely to comply with adult demands, but compliance can take an active form; running errands and performing services for others are active processes. Young boys seem more prone than girls to put out energy in bursts of strenuous physical activity, but the girls are not sitting idly by while the boys act; they are simply playing more quietly. Their play is fully as organized and planned, possibly more so. When girls play, they actively impose their own design upon their surroundings as much as boys do.

It is true that boys and men are more aggressive, but this does not mean that females are the passive victims of aggression--they do not yield or withdraw in the face of aggression any more frequently than males do, at least during the phases of childhood that have been observed. We have already noted the curious fact that while males are more dominant, females are not especially submissive, at least not to boys and girls their own age. In sum, the term "passive" does not accurately describe the most common female personality attributes.

We must conclude from our survey of all the data that many popular beliefs about the psychological characteristics of the two sexes have little or no basis in fact. Yet people continue to believe, for example, that girls are more "social" than boys, or are more suggestible than boys, ignoring the fact that careful observation and measurement show no sex differences.

The explanation may be that people's attention is selective. It is well-documented that whenever a member of a group behaves the way an observer expects him to, the observer notes the fact, and his prior belief is confirmed and strengthened. But when a member of the group behaves in a way that is not consistent with the observer's expectations, the behavior is likely to go unnoticed, so the observer's prior belief remains intact.

This probably happens continually when those with entrenched ideas about sex differences observe male and female behavior. As a result, myths live on that would otherwise rightfully die out under the impact of negative evidence.

*DEBATABLE CONCLUSIONS ABOUT SEX DIFFERENCES**

by Jeanne H. Block**

In a time of intense, polarized debate on the issue of the equality of the sexes, it is an awesome responsibility to undertake a distillation of available research findings regarding the extent and nature of sex differences. Eleanor Maccoby and Carol Jacklin[1] have not been intimidated by this consequential challenge. Their book, *The Psychology of Sex Differences,* has already become a frequently cited reference because of the reputation of the authors, the contemporary interest in the topic, the scope of the book's coverage, and the extensive documentation provided. The authors' conclusions about sex differences have ramifications both for psychological theorizing and for political-social decision-making. Because of its potential influence as a statement of what psychologists have found out about sex differences, the work requires close scrutiny and careful evaluation as to its conceptual and empirical adequacy.

The book, a sequel to Maccoby's *The Development of Sex Differences* published in 1966, assays the results of approximately 1,600 studies (published, for the most part, between 1966 and 1973) for inclusion in their 233-page Annotated Bibliography. Studies are organized around eight broad topical areas and, within areas, studies are classified for their relevance to particular psychological dimensions or constructs. Eighty-three tables summarize analyses in which means and/or standard deviations were evaluated for sex differences. Each table includes information about the investigator(s), ages of subjects, sample sizes, specific variables analyzed, and the results of the between-sex statistical comparisons. Each table is extensively discussed.

Maccoby and Jacklin, on the basis of their evaluation of the empirical literature, conclude that there are a number of "unfounded beliefs about sex differences" (p. 349): that (1) girls are more "social" than boys, (2) girls are more "suggestible" than boys, (3) girls have lower self-esteem,

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* From: J.H. Block, "Debatable Conclusions About Sex Differences," *Contemporary Psychology*, 1976, 21, 517-522. © 1976 by The American Psychological Association. Reprinted by permission.

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(4) girls excel at simple repetitive tasks while boys are superior on tasks requiring more complex cognitive processing and the inhibition of previously learned responses, (5) boys are more "analytical," (6) girls are more affected by heredity and boys by environment, (7) girls are less motivated toward achievement, and (8) girls are more auditorially oriented while boys are more visually oriented.

"Sex differences that are fairly well established," according to the authors, are the following: that (1) girls excel in verbal ability, (2) boys excel in visual-spatial ability, (3) boys excel in quantitative ability, and (4) males are more aggressive.

With respect to seven additional areas, the authors conclude the evidence is equivocal: (1) tactile sensitivity, (2) fear, timidity, and anxiety, (3) activity level, (4) competitiveness, (5) dominance, (6) compliance, and (7) nurturance and "maternal" behaviors.

Further, their evaluation of sex-differentiated parenting behaviors revealed "...surprisingly little differentiation in parent behavior according to the sex of the child" (p. 338) and led them to conclude that "the reinforcement contingencies for the two sexes appear to be remarkably similar" (p. 342).

Earlier assessments of sex differences by Maccoby and others (e.g., Terman & Tyler; Tyler) also evaluated the empirical literature and reached conclusions quite different from those embodied in the current Maccoby and Jacklin appraisal. The erosion in the evidence for sex differences over the past decade raises questions both puzzling and profound.

Although a monumental work, *The Psychology of Sex Differences* is nevertheless a controversial portrayal of the field. Broadly stated, three sources of weakness or disputation can be said to characterize the book: (1) sex difference research to date often does not permit sensible conclusions of any kind yet to be drawn; (2) Maccoby and Jacklin have employed various moot decision principles that importantly shape the conclusions drawn; and (3) in a sequence of surveying the literature, abstracting findings, tallying results, and then formulating conclusions, various "slippages" have occurred that sometimes are of appreciable consequence. Each of these points will be developed briefly here; an extended and documented critique is available elsewhere (Block, J.H. "Assessing sex differences: Issues, problems, and pitfalls." *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 1976, *22* (4), in press).

Attenuating factors affecting the empirical base on which conclusions about sex differences depend. Maccoby and Jacklin included all studies uncovered in their bibliographic search because "...there was no reasonable basis for selecting some studies and excluding others" (p. 11). Accordingly, there is wide variation in the quality of the data base. The statistical power of studies contributing to their conclusions range widely; more than one-third of the comparisons between the sexes are based on total samples of 60 or less and about one-fifth of the comparisons involve total samples of less than 40. In many studies, unreliability of measures is an attenuating factor; to the extent that sex differences are assessed using undependable scores, true differences between the sexes will go undetected. The conceptual quality of psychological measures used to assess sex differences has often been ignored; the absence of sex differences when evaluated by casually constructed, construct-invalid measures does not mean that differences would not emerge when appropriate measures are used. The inconsistency characterizing findings in many areas is often a function of these psychometric and methodological deficiencies.

Empirical inquiry into sex differences has often been essentially unfocused and accidental, investigators being less interested in sex differences per se than in the interrelationships among variables. In such studies, measures often are selected precisely because they have controlled for sex or have not demonstrated sex differences in other research contexts. Sex differences are tested with the hope that their *absence* will justify merging samples of males and females and will simplify analysis and reporting of results. In the absence of a conceptual rationale for expectable divergence, these studies burden the literature with null findings of inconsequential import. Maccoby and Jacklin note the incidental quality of many sex differences and suggest that the time has come for studies guided by explicit hypotheses derived from considered conceptual schema. However, in the meantime, it must be recognized that the empirical data base with respect to sex differences is unrepresentative in ways that cannot be well assessed.

The empirical literature on sex differences also reflects great unevenness in the representation of various age groups. Of the studies contributing to the Maccoby and Jacklin conclusions, 75% are based on research participants 12 years old or younger; almost 40% derive from studies of pre-school children. Other investigators have reported evidence for increasing sex differentiation with age and, guided by this insight, I examined the Maccoby and Jacklin conclusions from this perspective. When the studies cited by the authors are sorted according to the age of the participants into three categories--infancy through age 4, ages 5 through 12, and age 13 and over--the percentage of comparisons showing clear and significant sex differences shows marked increase over time, from 37% in the earliest period to 47% in the middle period, and to 55% in the oldest age group. This trend is even more striking if studies based on small samples are excluded. Conclusions about the existence of sex differences thus depend upon the age mix in the set of studies being examined, a recognition that importantly tempers the Maccoby and Jacklin evaluations based predominantly on samples of pre-adolescent children.

* * *

The evaluation framework of Maccoby and Jacklin. The authors have taken pains to indicate the decision rules and methodological values guiding their evaluational and integrative effort. But other decisions and values might as reasonably have been applied, resulting in very different summary conclusions. It is instructive to indicate how the reasonable but debatable decisions of Maccoby and Jacklin may have contributed to their conclusions.

In organizing research data, the conceptual rubric or classification scheme employed by the research collators takes on critical significance.

When research results achieved with a variety of instruments tapping different phenomena are brought together in order to assess the coherence of the empirical evidence surrounding a particular construct such as impulsivity or empathy or achievement emphasis or breaking set, what conceptual criteria shall be used to categorize the existing studies? Categories can be defined too broadly as, for example, in the achievement domain where Maccoby and Jacklin bring together some 12 indicators of parental pressures for achievement, such as praise, criticism, parental standards for intellectual performance, expectations of household help, educational goals set for the child, anxious intrusions into the child's performance, and so on. Although many of these measures clearly relate to the achievement dimension, others, lacking both construct and discriminant validity, are readily challengeable. Anxious interference and criticisms, for example, could be construed readily as indicators of maternal anxiety or impatience or intrusiveness rather than as indices of achievement emphasis. With such heterogeneous measures, it is not surprising that Maccoby and Jacklin found little difference between the sexes in the socialization pressures experienced.

Organizing rubrics also can be defined in ways that may be too limited. Thus, for example, Table 3.9 (Impulsivity, Lack of Inhibition) consists of 37 between-sex comparisons of which 28 are accounted for by the Matching Familiar Figures Test (or its variant, the Design Recall Test), Delay of Gratification tasks, and the Motor Inhibition Test. Although Maccoby earlier defined impulsivity more broadly to include distractibility, activity level, lack of persistence, temper tantrums, and aggressiveness, here the authors have chosen a more restricted, cognition-emphasizing definition. Many personologists would consider their present definition too limited and would conceptualize impulsivity more broadly to encompass noncognitive aspects as well. With a broader view of impulsivity, the conclusions of Maccoby and Jacklin would change.

Finally, classification rubrics can be established that combine conceptually disparate behaviors. For example, in evaluating sex differences with regard to the ability to "break set" or restructure, the authors consider together *both* responses to problems requiring insight for solution (e.g., the Luchins' water-jar problem) *and* responses to the word game Anagrams, a "...task calling for breaking set in a verbal context..." (p. 103). Although both insight problems and anagrams require a recombination of stimulus elements for solution, the cognitive task demands involved in classical insight problems are fundamentally different from those involved in anagram solution. Combining these two measures enables Maccoby and Jacklin to conclude that "...it is by no means demonstrated that boys excel on tasks calling for restructuring or breaking set..." (p. 132). Had they kept separate the two kinds of studies, it would be noted that males score significantly higher on insight problems (12 of 14 comparisons; no significant differences on two) while females score higher on 4 of 10 comparisons involving anagram task performance (with the remaining six comparisons showing no significant sex differences). By combining these two conceptually disparate tasks, Maccoby and Jacklin arrive at a different conclusion about sex differences in breaking set than are suggested by the task-separated data.

Obviously, theoretical preferences guide one's choice of a conceptual rubric and I do not mean to suggest that Maccoby and Jacklin have been wrong in their selections. I do mean to emphasize that other, no less rigorous, classification schemata would result in a different organization of the available empiricism and issue conclusions of a very different sort.

A second consequential decision was to "emphasize the null hypothesis." The inferential inadequacy of the null hypothesis approach and its tendency to mislead interpretation of data have long been recognized. To avoid the "hopeless inconsistency" generated by the significant-nonsignificant dichotomy (a strategy central to the Maccoby and Jacklin analysis), such statisticians as Cronbach recommend the reporting of descriptive data and the use of confidence intervals to provide a proper interpretative perspective. The interpretative perspective is distorted also when Maccoby and Jacklin enter the word "None" in the "Difference" column of their tables and use expressions like "unfounded beliefs" and "myths" in their summary evaluations of data bases yielding inconsistent findings with respect to sex differences. In these several ways, inconclusive results are transformed into strongly stated negative results.

A methodological preference running through the Maccoby and Jacklin volume is a preference for "objective" data and a disenchantment with ratings because of their vulnerability to stereotypes. In their concluding chapter, they note:

> We have repeatedly encountered the problem that so-called "objective" measures of behavior yield different results than ratings or self-reports. Ratings are notoriously subject to shifting anchor points....For example, in one study, teachers rated each child in their class on activity level; the boys received higher average ratings; but "actometer" recordings for the same group of children did not show the boys to be engaging in more body movement. Obviously, the possibility exists that teachers are noticing and remembering primarily the behavior that fits their stereotypes. (p. 356)

Their interpretation of this study is worth close inspection. In this research, Loo and Wenar found that teacher ratings of activity based on long-term observations of children in many different contexts were sex discriminating while a *single* mechanical recording of activity in the classroom situation was not. The low reliability of actometer scores is well known and, indeed, was acknowledged by the investigators. For this reason, most actometer studies use several different time samplings of activity and, under these conditions, the more reliable activity scores typically reveal sex differences. Further, Maccoby and Jacklin's stereotype interpretation of the rating results is directly challenged by a study cited in their Annotated Bibliography (Halvorsen & Waldrop) in which composited actometer scores correlated highly with teachers' ratings of activity-related variables. So, the example introduced by Maccoby and Jacklin to support their view has a more parsimonious explanation.

The second study construed by the authors as evidence for stereotypes (Meyer & Sobieszek) provides no such support since the critical analysis of variance issued *no* differences even approaching statistical significance.

Certainly, stereotypes are a problem in the scientific evaluation of sex differences and their influence must be carefully weighted. Rather than giving precedence to one kind of data over another, however, the inferential adequacy of *all* kinds of data must be evaluated closely. The preferences of Maccoby and Jacklin have led them to minimize or even to dismiss findings that would importantly modify some of their conclusions.

* * *

Slippages in the evaluational sequence. It is inevitable, in so extended and complicated an effort, that errors, omissions, and other deficiencies will occur. Inevitability accepted, it is nevertheless imperative that such inaccuracies be few and of small import. It is therefore a most unhappy responsibility to have to report finding more flaws in the documentation and interpretation of Maccoby and Jacklin than are, I believe, acceptable in a reference volume. Only a sampling of the "slippages" I happen to have encountered can be presented here.

Some studies published within the designated time span of the search for studies of sex differences were not included in the Annotated Bibliography. Errors of this kind are inescapable and difficult to estimate or to evaluate for their significance. More immediately serious is the question of the sufficiency of the research summaries in the Annotated Bibliography. These summaries are sometimes erroneous and with some frequency fail to include mention of significant interactions with sex, do not recognize the existence of consistent trends over several studies conducted by an investigator, and do not record clear differences in the patterning of relationships as a function of sex. Thus, a study by Cruse of children at four ages is summarized as finding significant sex differences at only two age levels. In fact, the original article reveals a significant main effect for sex; between-sex comparisons at each of the separate age levels are *not* reported and are not inferrable from the data. A study on childhood accidents (Manheimer & Mellinger) is tersely summarized with the statement, "boys' accident rate was higher than girls" (p. 533). The original article reveals that, in a sample of almost 9,000 successive admissions to an emergency room, boys had significantly more accidents at *every* age level between 4 and 18 years and that accident frequency *increased* with age for boys and *decreased* with age for girls. Such information adds immeasurably to the power and implicativeness of these findings. A study by Staub is reported as showing no sex differences; the original article reveals strikingly significant differences between boys and girls in the *pattern* of relationships among variables.

A second source "slippage" is the omission of relevant studies included in the Annotated Bibliography from the tables organized according to topical areas. Thus, I happened to encounter nine studies pertinent to Activity Level that were not tabled; in *each* of these nine studies, males were significantly more active.

Omissions were found to be a consequential problem in other tables as well. Table 7.5, Compliance with Adult Requests and Demands, omits eight studies from the Annotated Bibliography and Table 4.5, Curiosity and Exploration, also omits eight studies related to environmental exploration that I noted in the Annotated Bibliography. Inclusion of these studies changes the nature of the conclusions to be drawn about sex differences in activity level, compliance, and curiosity. There does not appear to be a rationale for these, and other exclusions since, in most instances, the omitted studies employed dependent measures similar (or even identical) to those tabled. Obviously, the clerical work involved in sorting and tabling studies was enormous and some error was unavoidable. What is unfortunate, however, is that the overlooked studies in some cases seem to change importantly the tenor of the conclusions.

Discrepancies between discussion in the text and tabled results represent a third source of "slippage" in the Maccoby and Jacklin volume. For example, the authors conclude that differences found in general intellectual abilities between ages 2 and 7 usually favor girls but urge caution in interpreting this finding since "the higher scores of girls tend to be found in studies of 'disadvantaged' children" (p. 65). The data referenced (Table 3.1) contains 18 between-sex comparisons in the 2 to 7 years age range. Six of these 18 studies involved "disadvantaged" samples and of these, two or 33% found girls scoring significantly higher. Twelve of the 18 studies were based on middle-class samples and of these, four or 33% found girls scoring significantly higher. Since these percentages are identical, the attribution of the observed trends to the "disadvantaged" origin of some samples is quite unjustified.

In summarizing the findings on task confidence and locus of control, Maccoby and Jacklin note "...a tendency for young women of college age to lack confidence in their ability to do well on a new task, and their sense that they have less control over their own fates than men do. These trends are not seen among *older or younger women*" (p. 359; italics added). Reference to the relevant tables for the basis of this implicative relationship raises some disconcerting questions. Table 4.8, Task Confidence, suggests that the sex difference noted at college age extends downward as well since two of the three between-sex comparisons at younger ages (7 to 14 years) find boys more confident. Table 4.9, Locus of Control, includes 12 comparisons of younger subjects; no sex differences were found in 8 of these 12 studies, suggesting that conclusions about locus of control at younger ages are, at best, equivocal. Now, consider the evidence for the assertion that differences in confidence and perceived control are not sex differentiating among adults beyond college age. Neither of the two tables includes *any* comparisons of adult men or women over the age of 21. Thus, there are no empirical grounds for the authors' assertions that "these trends are not seen among older or younger women."

Variation in the standards of evidence used to evaluate the aggregated findings surrounding a particular data base represents a final kind of "slippage" affecting conclusions about sex differences. Maccoby and Jacklin use a "box-scoring" approach to tally the results of studies within a domain according to those favoring males, favoring females, and finding no significant sex differences. Depending upon the balance of significant/nonsignificant findings, conclusions about sex differences are drawn. Thus, for sex differences said by Maccoby and Jacklin to be "well established," females score higher in 28% of the studies of verbal ability, males score higher on 9%, and the remaining 63% of the studies yield no significant sex difference.

For spatial abilities, males score higher in 39% of the studies and females in 5%; for quantitative ability, males score higher in 46% of the studies and females in 11%; and for aggressivity, males score higher in 55% of the studies and females in 5%. But compare these percentages for "well-established" findings to the percentages characterizing "equivocal" results--for example, activity level where, including the omitted studies, males score higher in 41% of the studies and females in 5%; or dominance where, including studies omitted, males score higher in 42% of the studies and females in 4%; or compliance where females score higher in 50% of the studies and males in none. Shall we conclude with Maccoby and Jacklin that sex differences are "unfounded with respect to self-esteem when males score higher in 73% of the tabled studies of task confidence and females in none; or in insight problems requiring restructuring where males score higher in 86% of the studies and females in none? And what shall we conclude about curiosity when, including omitted studies, males score higher in 48% of the studies and females in 14%? As this sampling indicates, there is wide variability in the criteria Maccoby and Jacklin used to evaluate sex differences.

* * *

Tracking a conclusion back to the original data. In previous sections, examples of "slippage" have been reported more or less in isolation. But errors can compound, their cumulative effect thus distorting seriously our understandings of sex differences. Consider, for example, the authors' comment in their summary chapter regarding "instances in [their] review where a difference was evident only briefly, during a limited age period. This appears to be true, for example, on certain measures of 'impulsivity' where boys are more impulsive only during the preschool years" (p. 357). What is the basis for this assertion regarding male impulsivity during the preschool period?

This summary state[illegible] was heralded in an earlier interpretation, this time employing a more restricted notion of "impulsivity": "The reader may recall that this is the age [i.e., preschool] at which boys were found to be more 'impulsive' in the sense that they were less able than girls to wait for a delayed, more attractive reward" (pp. 144-45).

This interpretation in turn may be traced back still further to the authors' discussion of the tabled evidence for sex differences in impulsivity: "As may be seen in Table 3.9, there is *some* [italics added] evidence that boys are more impulsive on this measure [delay of gratification] during the preschool years..." (p. 101).

Reference to Table 3.9 reveals three studies employing the delay of gratification paradigm with preschool children, two studies based on samples of largely black, lower SES children yielding no significant sex differences and one study by Mischel and Underwood in which a significant sex difference was found.

The original article by Mischel and Underwood cites three other investigations conducted by Mischel and his associates studying preschool children with a similar experimental paradigm. Mischel and Moore found *no* significant sex differences; two remaining studies made no mention of testing for sex differences. The Mischel and Moore study should have been picked up by the research scan of Maccoby and Jacklin but was neither tabled nor included in the Annotated Bibliography.

Thus, Maccoby and Jacklin's willingness to attribute greater impulsivity to boys during the preschool years is predicated upon the results of only one study together with neglect of the findings from three other studies. A single, unreplicated result based upon a specific and narrow experimental paradigm (waiting time for a preferred reward) has, through an erosion of qualifications, been converted to a positive conclusion about age-limited sex differences in "impulsivity." More substantial standards of evidence would seem to be required before such a conclusion is warranted.

* * *

In summary. This is a monumental yet ambivalence-inducing book. The authors' discussion of problems besetting research on sex differences is perceptive; their identification of areas of psychological functioning that have been underresearched or where findings appear especially inconsistent should encourage investigators toward fruitful new studies; their developmental perspectives, embodied in their discussion of the acquisition of sex-role concepts, extend previous theorizing. By systematizing and ordering, by raising questions both incisive and intriguing, Maccoby and Jacklin have generated new and provocative hypotheses about sex-role development and have helped move the study of sex differences toward the necessary next stage of scientific investigation, hypothesis testing. These are consequential contributions.

But insofar as the book is viewed as a reference work, large problems surround it. The long, arduous, complicated evaluation process undertaken by the authors in their effort to impose organization upon a sprawling, unruly body of data is vulnerable to error and reasonable argument at every step along the way. Readers seeking the state of knowledge regarding sex differences will find the book a valuable entry point into the literature, but they will need to be selective in accepting its conclusions.

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"Early Sex-Role Messages"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

C. Objective: Investigate and discuss the limitations which traditional stereotypes of femininity and masculinity place on career options.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This learning activity is related to III.A.1., "The Ideal Female/Male Student."

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Divide the participants into heterogeneous groups of five to eight persons.

c. Distribute newsprint and felt-tip markers to all the groups.

d. Direct each group to respond to one of the following stimulus statements for 20 minutes, with one person from each group to be designated by the group as a recorder. Equal numbers of work groups should respond to each statement. The stimulus statements are as follows:

1) Growing up as a female, I learned that I should...
2) Growing up as a male, I learned that I should...
3) As a female, my daughter has learned that she should...
4) As a male, my son has learned that he should...

Each statement should be completed with as many examples as possible of applicable behaviors, attitudes, and values. (See the guidelines for brainstorming in the introductory section of this packet.)

e. Bring together all the subgroups responding to stimulus questions d.1 and d.2, and ask them to compare and contrast their responses for 15 minutes. Likewise bring together all the subgroups responding to stimulus questions d.3 and d.4.

f. Reconvene the full group to make comparisons among the responses of all the subgroups. In particular, emphasis should be placed on comparing the kinds of messages received by participants themselves while they were growing up with those received by their own children. Post the newsprint for the participants to see, and refer to the suggested discussion questions in g. below. A total of 20 to 30 minutes should be allocated for this phase of the activity.

It should be noted that for workshops with large numbers of participants the discussion described above would be more productive in smaller groups rather than in one large group.

g. Suggested discussion questions to aid in the processing of this strategy are as follows:

   1) What were some feelings you experienced when doing this strategy? Did some of the messages for your sex seem relevant to your childhood experiences?

   2) What are the assumptions behind the various messages?

   3) Did you ever wish you were the other sex? When?

   4) How do you feel the messages would have differed for you, personally, had you been of the other sex? Another race, ethnic group, or socioeconomic class?

   5) Give some examples of people, institutions, etc., that tend to reinforce these messages.

   6) Give some examples of people, institutions, etc., that try to reduce stereotypic messages.

h. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/4 hours

Resources Needed:

Materials: Newsprint, felt-tip pens, masking tape

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list at least eight messages they received during their childhood which were related to expected sex-role behavior, attitudes, or values. Each message should be identified further as facilitating or inhibiting career development.

"Script Checklist"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

C. Objective: Investigate and discuss the limitations which traditional stereotypes of femininity and masculinity place on career options.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Prior to workshop participants should complete "Script Checklist."

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Divide into small groups and have participants share only what they are comfortable sharing. Do not collect worksheets. Have participants pay close attention to questions 3, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 14, 15, 21, and 22.

c. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 15 minutes to complete checklist
30 minutes to discuss

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Script Checklist"

Reference: James and Jongewand (1971)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list three new self-awarenesses gained from completing the checklist.

SCRIPT CHECKLIST[1]

Name ______________________________

1. In my life I am supposed to ______________________________
____

2. When I was 12-to-14 years old, life promised to be ______________________________
____

3. In what ways have your attitudes and feelings about being a man/woman changed in your lifetime? ______________________________
____
____

4. What have you recently decided about your future? ______________________________
____

5. What is the most important thing you have to do right now? ______________________________
____

6. What do you see yourself doing 10 years from now if all goes well? ______________________________
____

7. Who is your favorite person or idol (fictional, historical, today)? ______________________________
____

8. What did your mother tell you not to do? ______________________________
____

9. What did your father tell you not to do? ______________________________
____

10. What did your mother tell you to do? ______________________________
____

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[1] Adapted from: James, M., and Jongeward, D. Born to win: Transactional analysis with gestalt experiments. Reading, MA.: Addison-Wesley, 1971.

SCRIPT CHECKLIST (continued)

11. What did your father tell you to do? ______________________________

12. What do you feel your parents expect of your life? ______________________________

13. What is your recurring dream? ______________________________

14. How does or did your parent of the other sex deal with problems? ______________________________

15. How does or did your parent of the same sex deal with problems? ______________________________

16. In which life position do you spend most of your time? ______________________________

17. What significant events does your family history include (e.g., death, alcoholism, divorce)? How did these affect you? ______________________________

18. What do you do for recreation ______________ do you enjoy it? __________

19. Do you or did you have a nickname? ______________________________

20. Do you have any favorite slogans? ______________________________

21. Which injunction seems to be strongest in your life?

____Don't exist

____Don't be who you are

____Don't have any fun

____Don't get close, don't touch

____Don't grow up

____Don't make it if you do grow up

____Don't ....

22. What are some of your positive "DO" messages in relation to your sex? ______________________________

"Women: Choices and Changes" (Videotape)

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

C. Objective: Investigate and discuss the limitations which traditional stereotypes of femininity and masculinity place on career options.

4. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

For more intensive discussion, and for suggestions for using the videotape, see Video Viewers' Guide No. 3: Women: Choices and Changes.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants view the half-hour color videotape, "Women: Choices and Changes."

c. The tape focuses on the career development and career patterns of women and the messages that women receive about appropriate career decisions. The developmental themes are: female socialization and expectations, occupational dreams and realities, male/female relationships, women's view of self and other women, and the reality and effects of change. In small groups of 5-6 persons, discuss the messages in the videotape. These questions may be used:

   1) What kinds of careers were considered OK for the women in the tape? For the women in the group?

   2) Were the messages that women in the group received about what was OK for them different from the messages that men received?

   3) Did any of the women in the group want to be something different from what they are now? What or who prevented their actualizing their dreams?

   4) Did any of the women in the group become something that they were advised and encouraged not to be? What kinds of obstacles did they have to overcome in order to fulfill their goal?

   5) Are any of the women in the group working outside the home by necessity rather than choice?

   6) Do the women in the group view other women as competitors or as support? What types of groups did they belong to?

   7) Have they undergone any significant changes in lifestyle or career in the past five years? Has that change affected the significant other people in their lives? If so, in what way?

8) What kinds of decisions about your future do you expect to make?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes for tape
30 minutes for discussion

Resources Needed:

Materials: Videotape No. 3, "Women: Choices and Changes"
Video Viewers' Guide No. 3: Women: Choices and Changes

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will share actively in the discusison about the main messages in the tape and the corresponding effects of socialization upon their or their loved ones' lives.

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-L

"Men: Choices and Changes" (Videotape)

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

C. Objective: Investigate and discuss the limitations which traditional stereotypes of femininity and masculinity place on career options.

5. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Show the half-hour color videotape "Men: Choices and Changes."

c. Six different segments of the videotape address various issues related to men's socialization. In small groups, discuss the most important messages from the tape. Some suggested questions for discussion are listed below, and a more lengthy list of discussion questions is available in Video Viewers' Guide No. 2: Men: Choices and Changes.

1) Give some examples of messages which males receive regarding acceptable and unacceptable kinds of behaviors, attitudes, and values for them to have.

2) What are the advantages and disadvantages of the traditional family model with the man alone as breadwinner?

3) What are some advantages and disadvantages of being a man in this culture?

4) What are some of the advantages and disadvantages for men who pursue atypical kinds of work?

5) What are some of the implications of two-career families?

6) Discuss some of the reasons for and implications of men not openly expressing their feelings and emotions.

7) Are there any sex differences which we want to cherish and keep intact?

d. Summarize

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes for tape
30 minutes for discussion

Resources Needed:

Materials: Videotape No. 2, "Men: Choices and Changes"
Video Viewers' Guide No. 2: Men: Choices and Changes

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will write at least four of the important messages they received from the tape.

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-L/M

I.C.6.

"Men's Lives"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

C. Objective: Investigate and discuss the limitations which traditional stereotypes of femininity and masculinity place on career options.

6. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Prior to session have participants read "Men and Women Report Their Views on Masculinity" (Tavris, 1977).

b. Explain goals and objectives of strategy.

c. Discuss the articles in reference to participants' own experience, whether they agree or disagree with the articles, and general reactions. Questions you might want to include are:

   1) How common is it for people to have "liberated ideas, unliberated desires," as the author found in the study? Have you found this to be true of yourself?
   2) How much does fear of homosexuality restrict men to masculine roles and characteristics? How does this affect career development?
   3) Why might men be less likely to ask for directions when lost (p. 82, Tavris)?

d. Show film Men's Lives. Discuss, and relate back to previous questions and discussion.

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 25 minutes for discussing articles
Film: 50 minutes, plus discussion time

Resources Needed:

Materials: Film, Men's Lives
Handout: "Men and Women Report Their Views on Masculinity" (Tavris, 1977)

Outcome Criteria:

Participants personalize their experiences by discussing the articles and film. Each person writes three ways in which they have been influenced by their sex-role socialization.

MEN AND WOMEN REPORT THEIR VIEWS ON MASCULINITY[1]

by C. Tavris

The Hemingway hero is on the way out. Today, the ideal man combines self-confidence, success, and the willingness to fight for his family and beliefs with warmth, gentleness, and the willingness to lose.

- The macho male who is tough, strong, aggressive, and has many sexual conquests is not admired by either sex.

- Men and women are reaching for the androgynous ideal, but they haven't quite caught it. Both sexes support the idea of "men's liberation," the efforts to liberate men from their emotional straitjackets. Men want to be more warm and loving than they feel they are, and women want their men to be more gentle, romantic, and expressive than the men themselves do.

- Generally speaking, women are much more admiring of their men than the men are of themselves.

- Masculinity is harder for men to define than for women. Women know it when they see it, and they consider their men more masculine than the men themselves do.

- Masculinity today is a set of admirable qualities, appropriate for women too, rather than a set of merit badges that must be earned and rewon. Most people don't think men have to prove their manhood any more in daring feats of faucet-fixing or hand-to-hand combat.

These findings, and others, emerged from a survey David Pope and I designed for the readers of *Psychology Today*. Much attention has been devoted to women's rights and roles in the last decade, and we felt it was time to give men a chance to express their side. The survey was addressed to readers of both sexes, so we could see whether men and women agree on what makes a "real man," and what traits, if any, distinguish such a creature from a real woman.

An equal number of men and women filled out the questionnaire, a total of 28,000 in all. People with a wide range of opinions gave us their views on masculinity. *Psychology Today* readers are not typical of the average American because they are younger, more affluent, less religious, better educated, and more liberal (see box), but for just these reasons we thought that if anyone were wondering about the state of American masculinity these days, they would be.

Volunteer surveys are rarely representative of the American public, because only the people who are especially interested in the subject take the time and effort to respond. In the case of a masculinity survey, this bias may have operated to draw more nontraditional respondents. "So why do I spend an hour and 13 cents to fill out and mail the questionnaire back?" wrote a young minister from Georgia. "Because I feel I *must*, to say very loudly, I'm tired of American male stereotypes! I have a beard, two biceps, a penis AND I'm capable of showing warmth, sharing housework, and shedding a tear. Why are so many men threatened by that combination of characteristics?"

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[1] From: Tavris, C. "Men and Women Report Their Views on Masculinity," Psychology Today, January 1977, pp. 35-38; 42; 82. Reprinted from Psychology Today Magazine. Copyright 1976, Ziff-Davis Publishing Co.

Several women wrote to say they had tried to get their threatened husbands to fill out the survey, but couldn't budge them. "My husband said that answering surveys wasn't masculine," wrote one. Another added, "my husband, who views himself as liberal and is pro-women's lib, didn't think it would be very important for him to see my response sheet or take the survey since, he said, *he* is a man and a man knows more about masculinity. In the words of *Ms.* magazine, CLICK."

This preliminary report compares the answers of men and women to a number of key topics: personality traits; experiences with love, sex, work and family; and the range of ingredients that could be considered part of masculinity or the male role. Naturally we couldn't include all of the nuances that people consider masculine or feminine, and readers reminded us of the omissions. "I look at the way a man uses his hands," said one reader. "Nervous indecisive movements are unmasculine to me." "A man's voice and mannerisms influence me," wrote another. "I hate prissy gestures."

Many couples wrote to tell us how useful it was to fill out the survey together, but some learned more than they expected. "His responses aren't just a surprise to me--they're a shock. He thinks sexual fidelity is not at all important for either sex, while I think it is essential for both! What's worse is that I doubt that we'll be able to talk about these discrepancies. Oh dear." But this wife wrote later to amend her prediction. "We did talk about the discrepancies, and it was not only interesting, but fun."

THE MEANINGS OF MASCULINITY

The criteria for manhood in this society are in a muddied state, which explains the difficulty many respondents had in trying to decide whether men are, or should be, different from women in personality and ability. Many hew to the humanist line that there is no such thing as masculinity or femininity, just humanity. "I feel that being either masculine or feminine is having the guts to be yourself," one man wrote. But others, in transition from one set of standards to another, were uncertain and ambivalent. One fellow couldn't decide whether it was OK or chauvinistic to be turned on by a good-looking woman: "I tend to think of myself as a liberated humanist, but my gut reactions when I'm with a beautiful woman often tend to be distracting. I am not talking about simple sexual attraction, although that is certainly a part of it. I feel that the rest is culturally induced, and I'd like to get rid of it. I have not yet reconciled this conflict within myself."

For others the conflict involved role-related behavior rather than feelings. One man bravely began a letter asserting that "When I open the door for a woman, or help her with her coat, or manage her chair, or open a tightly closed container, I feel that I am definitely masculine. I am the man, dominant and superior." But by the end of the letter he was saying, "Actually I feel it is important that women begin doing these types of things in the presence of men. After all, they'd do it anyway if a man wasn't around."

To begin with, we gave readers a list of traits and asked how important each one was to their concept of the ideal man, and then again for the ideal woman, on a scale from "not at all important" to "essential." The traits included some that were traditionally male, such as competitive and strong, some traditionally female, such as soft and loving to children, and some desirable but sexually neutral, such as self-confident and intelligent. Readers regarded only a few of these traits as essential for men--and essential for women, too. Almost everyone felt that a real man and a real woman stand up for their beliefs, are willing to fight and defend their families, and are able to love. About 40 percent thought that self-confidence was essential for both. Half of the women thought intelligence was essential for both sexes, but for some reason only a third of the men did. There was no single trait that readers overwhelmingly applied to men but not to women, or vice versa. Men were more likely than women to think the ideal man is competitive (38 percent to 27 percent) and take risks (34 percent to 25 percent). But neither sex thought men should be especially aggressive; only some 30 percent thought this trait was essential or very important.

Some traditional images linger, though. Men thought physical attractiveness was more important to their ideal woman than to the ideal man. More men than women, thought not a majority of either sex, felt that "real" men should be more competitive, aggressive, strong, and successful at work than women. But the large proportion of men who believe that masculinity requires warmth, gentleness, and ability to love suggests that they are not your traditional machos, at least in theory.

If men are rejecting the John Wayne model of masculinity, however, they seem less sure than women about what should replace it. More women than men said they know the essential or very important ingredients of masculinity. They admire men who are romantic (66 percent said this trait was essential or very important, compared to 48 percent of the men), warm (89 percent to 68 percent), gentle (86 percent to 64 percent), able to cry (51 percent to 40 percent), and even soft (48 percent to 28 percent). They are also more likely than men to think that a real man is a skilled lover (48 percent to 38 percent) and to believe that sexual fidelity is very important (67 percent to 42 percent). Neither sex regards many sexual conquests as a sign of masculinity. But the women are greedy. They don't just want a man who is merely sweet, thoughtful, loving, gentle, and faithful; they also rate being successful at work more heavily than men do (66 percent to 54 percent). "The more successful a man is at his chosen profession, the more masculine I find that man," one woman said, but amended her remarks to say that the profession could be anything from chess or gardening to medicine and big business. To be fair, more women thought job success was important for their sex, too (60 percent to 41 percent of the men).

PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS

	%	
Age	Men	Women
Under 20	12	21
21-25	29	31
26-30	23	20
31-35	14	11
36-45	12	11
Over 45	10	6
Marital Status		
Never married	52	49
Married, first time	30	27
Remarried	6	7
Divorced, widowed	12	17
Education		
Professional degree	25	16
Some grad school	12	10
College degree	20	19
Some college	32	39
High school or less	11	16
Political views		
Very liberal	25	27
Liberal	31	37
Moderate	26	25
Conservative	14	10
Very conservative	4	1
Religion		
Atheist, agnostic	31	25
Protestant	30	36
Catholic	22	21
Jewish	6	6
Other	11	12
Income (personal)		
None	6	16
Less than $5,000	22	29
$5,000 to $9,999	19	25
$10,000 to $14,999	19	19
$15,000 to $19,000	16	7
$20,000 to $29,000	12	3
More than $30,000	6	1

The androgynous combination of traits that women like turned up in many letters. The ideal men are strong but gentle, tough on the outside and soft on the inside, able to express emotions but not a slave to them. "My husband treats me like a lady...to the world he is assertive, self-confident, but he is very able to show his fears and uncertainties to me in private." "Although my husband feels least masculine when he is home with the family, I feel the opposite. He is strong and powerful in the business world all day, but when he comes home and sometimes stays up all night nursing our sick children--the concern, gentleness, and love he shows are no less masculine."

It may seem that women are putting an impossible load of requirements on men, but I think it is more likely that women define masculinity in terms of whom they love, not an ideal they seek. They do not fall in love because a man is masculine; they decide a man is masculine once they are in love. Possibly for this reason, the women seem more certain of their men's masculinity than the men themselves are. Women were more likely to say their husbands or partners were "more masculine" than average (44 percent to 29 percent), while the men were more likely to feel they were just average in masculinity (58 percent to 48 percent).

Next, we asked men to evaluate themselves on each of the characteristics in the "ideal man" list, and for women to evaluate their husbands or current partners. More women describe their lovers as aggressive, physically strong, competitive, self-confident, and successful at work than the men describe themselves. Women also gave men more credit for being soft, warm, gentle, good-looking, and good lovers. However, there is a considerable gap between everyone's ideal man and the reality, especially in the qualities of warmth, gentleness, and romanticism. For example, 86 percent of the women want a gentle man, but only 55 percent say they have one; 68 percent of the men say their ideal man is gentle, but only 42 percent describe themselves that way.

Men may have rated "being a skilled lover" as less essential to masculinity than women did out of insecurity, but they need not worry. Almost half of the women said that being a good lover was highly characteristic of their men, but only a fourth of the men felt this was true of themselves. One young woman said that her first two lovers had been young, inexperienced, and impetuous. If she had stayed with them, she wrote, "I would truly have a low opinion of sex and men." But then she got an "older" lover, who had reached the ripe age of 30, and her life changed. "He went to great lengths to see that *I* was happy," she reported. "What a difference! Thank God for masculinity. Maybe it comes with age?"

Male insecurity, and female admiration, reappeared in several sexual questions. The men modestly said their penis size was merely average, but the women said their husbands were larger than average (average: 66 percent of the men, 56 percent of the women; larger than average: 19 percent of the men, 38 percent of the women). The men, worrying, tended to think that penis size was more important to a woman's sexual satisfaction than the women said it was for them. (This finding does not come from different experiences, by the way. Both men and women had had about the same average number of sexual partners, so the women's evaluations are not a matter of "they don't know better.") Men can relax. The controversy depends more on the eye of the beholder than the size of the organ.

How important or unimportant is each of the following traits to your concept of the ideal man and the ideal woman?	IDEAL MAN		IDEAL WOMAN		SELF	MATE
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
	Percent saying trait is "very important" or "essential" to ideal:				Percent of men saying trait is "highly characteristic" of themselves:	Percent of women saying trait is highly characteristic of their spouse or lover:
Intelligent	71	84	70	83	—	—
Self-confident	86	86	76	87	32	43
Physically strong	19	21	4	7	15	37
Tall	7	11	4	2	39	40
Physically attractive	26	29	47	32	21	50
Successful at work	54	66	41	60	40	53
Competitive	38	27	18	22	26	33
Aggressive	30	28	16	21	16	23
Takes risks	34	25	21	26	21	25
Stands up for beliefs	87	92	82	90	57	58
Fights to protect family	77	72	72	70	59	52
Able to love	88	96	92	97	54	60
Warm	68	89	83	88	40	54
Gentle	64	86	79	86	42	55
Soft	28	48	63	62	16	25
Romantic	48	66	64	67	33	34
Able to cry	40	51	50	58	—	—
Skilled lover	38	48	41	44	25	46
Many sexual conquests	5	4	4	5	—	—
Sexually faithful	42	67	56	66	45	57

LIBERATED IDEALS, UNLIBERATED DESIRES

One respondent explained that the questionnaire had made her aware of conflicts about masculinity. "I had tended to idealize traits such as gentleness and warmth, indicating that they were vital to masculinity. But when I reflected on one intense relationship, it was the traits I had minimized on paper that had aroused me in fact: pride in physical strength, competition in sports, and his constant awareness of being masculine. I think what I've found is that my feelings still lie in the deepest of traditions. While I will continue to assert myself as powerful in my own right, I'll always revel in my dreams of someone tall, dark, and handsome, to open doors and protect me forever." Another woman solved her ambivalence by marrying a gentle, yielding, affectionate man and taking a dominant, aggressive, muscular man as a lover. "I need both of these men," she wrote, "each fulfilling me in different ways. I would not exchange my husband's gentleness and concern for my lover's aggressiveness or egoism."

Beneath the egalitarian surface, some traditional rumblings can be heard. A minority of respondents of both sexes thought physical strength was more important for men than women, and we got some personal accounts that would have pleased Sam Peckinpah. A young man wrote about saving his girl friend from two wild dogs when the two had gotten lost in a forest. "My girl friend was very frightened that they would attack us, and tried to run but couldn't. I had to push her toward the woods. I stood there as she ran, drew my knife, and knew that I would try to kill those dogs if they attacked. At that moment, I felt totally masculine, instinctive, and unafraid. I was in the paratroopers and have been in combat, but for some reason this experience was extremely exhilarating." Similarly, a young woman wrote how her boy friend's strength and calm saved them when they got lost on a hiking trip:

"I was petrified. It was pitch black, and we had wandered off the trail.... Somehow he got us out of there alive; I'll never know how. During the whole ordeal, he appeared calm and totally in command of the situation. His reassurances kept me calm, even when I fell over a slight drop into a hole. Alone, I would have probably curled up into a ball and spent the night there, too terrified to move." Another woman who admired the "in command" male, described her husband's struggle to save his fishing boat in the face of a thunderous storm. "His masculinity was apparent because of his physical strength and daring, self-confidence and command of the situation," she wrote.

THE MANLY SHOW

Possibly because so few couples get lost in the woods or need to fight dogs and things that go bump in the night, many men have few behavioral criteria by which to judge their masculinity. We asked male readers when they feel most masculine. It turned out to be a tough question. One young man, struggling with definitions, said "masculinity is an illusive quality. Sometimes I mistake showing off for it." Other men feel that masculinity *is* the show: spending money on women, saying something witty or important to impress others, playing the role of teacher, accomplishing a task others said was impossible. Some said they feel masculine only in public, when the concern about behaving "like a man," and not behaving "like a homosexual," takes over. "I usually don't become aware of my masculinity," wrote one man, "except perhaps in the art of drinking lots of liquor. I feel that because I don't drink as much as the other guys, that there might be some doubt if I am a 'real' man."

For such men, masculinity is a matter to be established against other males. But for others, masculinity emerges in relations with women. About one-fourth of the men felt most masculine in sexual contexts, wooing a potential partner or making love. For example, one married man wrote about meeting a woman who was very attractive to him and desirable to other men, and who expressed an interest in having sex with him. Nothing happened, "but this made me feel really masculine, and led to the realization that I could be attractive to women in a truly masculine sense--giving me a confidence I have had ever since." A similar experience happened to a traveling salesman, who wrote:

> "I had never been particularly accomplished with women and although my wife was not a demanding person, I thought of myself as a poor bed partner to her and wanted to know if it was because of me or her. I met and had a brief relationship with a divorced [woman].... What was so memorable about this affair was that this woman, who led a very full and varied sex life, was able to give me a tremendous sense of masculinity because she made me feel very special, very masculine, very 'sexy' when I slept with her and those were new feelings to me. The affair was short-lived but in that time she taught me to be confident about myself and I think I can honestly say that since that time I have never doubted my masculinity or felt inferior.... Nor do I feel I have to seduce every woman I meet. I am confident of my own sexuality and therefore, my masculinity."

Another group of men (23 percent) felt most masculine when they were involved in work, defeating an opponent, achieving a major goal, or in competition. For these men, masculinity was earned, a struggle to overcome barriers and to prove something to oneself or others. "I became certain of my masculinity," wrote one, "by becoming an accomplished football player after repeatedly being told by both coaches and friends that I was too small." "Learning to box (prize fight) as a youngster and winning a lot of medals helped me *feel* masculine," an older man said, "but making hard decisions in life...made me *convinced* of my masculinity."

BEING AND DOING

Many writers, including Margaret Mead and Norman Mailer, have observed that women acquire a feminine identity simply by *being*, but men must earn masculinity by *doing*. Masculinity, in this view, is precarious because it has depended on a man behaving in certain "male" ways and not behaving in "female" ways.

Most of the respondents disagreed with this standard. Only a few men, for example, felt most masculine in the context of fighting or war, the traditional means of earning male merit badges. A young married man said that "the times I have felt really masculine have been in Vietnam during a fierce firefight, where we were vastly outnumbered and won; the other was my first parachute jump." Another said his most masculine experience occurred when he rescued a woman from being mugged.

Fewer than 10 percent said they felt a man would lose his masculinity if he were in a traditionally female occupation, such as nurse, model, nursery-school teacher, dress designer, or interior decorator. Respondents were even reluctant to say that men lose their masculinity if they don't work at all, that is, if they live on welfare, drop out of the system, or stay home as househusbands. The only occupations that would make a substantial number of men (under 20 percent) doubt a man's masculinity were prostitution and go-go dancing, and the only occupation a large group thought should be restricted to men was armed combat (30 percent of the men and 37 percent of the women).

However, men who worked in nontraditional jobs had another perception of the matter. A male nurse said that many people assume he is homosexual or at best unmasculine. A male elementary-school teacher said it took several years before he was accepted by the female teachers as "a real man." And a minister observed that "my profession has never been traditionally seen as a manly occupation. Therefore I have altered my concept of masculinity rather than question the masculinity of the ministry."

OF ARMS AND THE MAN

If work doesn't define masculinity, maybe aggressiveness does. I noted already that most respondents did not consider aggressiveness to be a desirable or essential masculine trait, but they were ambivalent about its use. We asked readers what a man should do if a stranger 1) accosted or insulted his wife, and 2) provoked him to anger. Men and women disagreed in their replies. In the first situation, more women than men thought the woman should handle the matter (26 percent to nine percent), but almost twice as many men as women were ready to hit the guy (19 percent to 10 percent). In the second situation, the men wanted to argue with the insulting stranger, but the women wanted them to ignore the pest.

One woman specified a whole set of circumstances that would determine what her man should do. "If a man verbally attacked me, say in a restaurant, I would want my husband to ignore him. But if he said something that was totally inexcusable, and quite loud, I would hope my husband would punch him. If he physically attacked me, I would be so embarrassed if my husband didn't punch him! But I definitely do not think fighting is an expression of manliness. I hate fist fights, but in the above situation I feel that it would be right."

Respondents do not like the idea of personal violence much, but they aren't strangers to the experience. Sixty percent of the men have at least occasionally hit another man in anger, and 40 percent have hit a woman on occasion, though few men say they punch either sex regularly. Women were more likely to have hit men than the other way around--65 percent of them have struck a man in anger--and, moreover, they are more likely than men to feel just fine about hitting a member of the opposite sex (32 percent to 17 percent; half said the experience was "understandable under the circumstances, but I would not do it now," and the rest are sorry they did it).

Men: When a man provokes you and makes you very angry, what are you most likely to do?

Women: When another man provokes your spouse or lover, what would you like him to do?

	%	
	Men	Women
Hit him.	8	4
Threaten to hit him.	8	4
Argue with him.	45	28
Make a joke of it.	5	10
Ignore him.	24	40
Leave the scene.	10	14

Men: If a strange man deliberately accosted or insulted your wife or lover, what would you be most likely to do?

Women: If a strange man deliberately accosted or insulted you, what should your spouse or lover do?

	%	
	Men	Women
Hit him.	19	10
Threaten to hit him.	18	14
Argue with him.	31	28
Make a joke of it.	5	5
Ignore him.	13	12
Let the woman handle the matter.	9	26
Leave the scene.	5	5

HOMOSEXUALITY AND MASCULINITY

While most of the respondents did not believe that masculinity requires many sexual conquests, they were divided on whether it requires heterosexuality. Seventy percent of the heterosexual respondents think that homosexual men are not fully masculine, although on most issues in the survey heterosexuals and homosexuals did not differ.

Heterosexuality and homosexuality are not either-or categories; as Kinsey found out, "the world is not to be divided into sheep and goats." In describing their sexual preference, 68 percent of the men said they were exclusively heterosexual; 18 percent said heterosexual, but had had homosexual experiences; six percent said they were bisexual; five percent said they were homosexual but had had heterosexual experiences; and three percent were exclusively homosexual. We compared the attitudes and experiences of these five groups, to see whether and how their concepts of masculinity differed.

Generally the groups agreed on the traits of the ideal man, with several exceptions. The more homosexual experience a man had, the more likely he was to think physical attractiveness, warmth, and intelligence are essential to a "real man." Homosexual men were also far more likely to say the ability to love was essential to masculinity (78 to 59 percent of the heterosexuals) and they placed greater importance on sexual fidelity (55 to 44 percent).

But homosexual men were more likely than heterosexual men to say they had never been in love (22 percent to three percent) and to have had many more sexual partners (33 percent of the homosexuals had had more than 100 lovers, compared to two percent of the heterosexuals). As one homosexual wrote, "I've found homosexuals to be relatively notorious sexually, with the heteros coming up fast. We all want the same thing: sex *with* love. But too often can't wait. I believe in love, absolutely. But in the meantime, rather than go crazy with loneliness, I will succumb for sex."

We found no differences among these groups in demographic factors--age, education, occupation, income, birth order, or religion--or in the importance they place on such life dimensions as work, money, love, and sex. In some matters, the interesting differences were not between exclusive heterosexuals and exclusive homosexuals, but between men who had had *no* homosexual experience and those who had, e.g., the exclusive heterosexuals were less likely than men in any category of homosexual background to value the ability to cry, and more likely to value competitiveness, as masculine traits.

Homosexual men regard themselves as less masculine than average (40 percent, compared to seven percent of the heterosexuals), and more feminine than average (36 percent to 19 percent). In terms of the stereotyped image of masculinity, their evaluation is true: homosexual men were much less likely to use violence, in their own experience or in the hypothetical stories; much less likely to own guns (40 percent of the exclusively heterosexual men own a gun, compared to only seven percent of the exclusively homosexual); much less likely to follow sports or participate in them. By self-report, the homosexuals' antimacho inclinations began in childhood. The greater a man's commitment to homosexuality, the more likely he was to report being ridiculed as a child for being a sissy: 27 percent of the exclusively heterosexual reported such ridicule, 44 percent of the heterosexuals with some homosexual encounters, 62 percent of the bisexuals, 56 percent of the homosexuals with heterosexual experiences, and 71 percent of the exclusively homosexual. We found, significantly, that the men most worried about being thought homosexual were not the exclusive heterosexuals, but the heterosexual men who had had an occasional homosexual encounter.

Homosexuals are as diverse in their attitudes about masculinity as heterosexuals are, though by virtue of their minority status they tend to be more politically liberal and more in favor of men's--and women's--liberation. We got letters from some who felt unmasculine and wanted to be heterosexual; others who were strong and certain about their masculine identity. "I believe that the average person hasn't the least idea of what or who is a homosexual," wrote one man, "except for the stereotypical effete male, which really isn't true. I've known many very 'masculine' men who were exclusive homosexuals--and the only passes I've ever had made at me have always been by married men. Interestingly enough it is this type of person who always makes it a point to either make a crude joke about 'queers' or is extremely disdainful of homos."

THE NEW MASCULINITY

Respondents supported the women's liberation movement, but they also overwhelmingly think that men could use some liberating too (72 percent of the men, 74 percent of the women). Not because of the confining pressures of the male role, surprisingly; the majority of the respondents disagreed that "the responsibilities of work and supporting a family give men less freedom of choice than women have" (52 percent of the men, 62 percent of the women). On the contrary, about half of the respondents think that neither sex is better off than the other in this society, and most of the rest think men have the advantage.

Men's liberation, to these readers, has more to do with emotional issues than economic ones. "I think men quit growing emotionally at five," one woman wrote. "They need to be taught to *feel*. Bringing home a good income isn't enough." A man explained, "Stereotypic ideas about masculinity in the 1950s were to a great degree my undoing. My inability to develop along routine lines had a lasting, negative effect on my self-esteem." Another man thought that women presently are more liberated than men; women merely have to endure discrimination in jobs and family, but men are more discriminated against in emotional needs. "I suspect that women have always been more internally free of their role than men," said another man. "Men's slavish inhibitions keep them within the confines of a given role, resulting in defensive egotism, practically forcing women to humor their rigidness."

The fact that more men and women believe in sexual equality is not a random or accidental event. It has its roots in the changing nature of family and work in this country; both sexes are deciding that two roles are better than one. Men are becoming less obsessed with work and success as the main criteria of masculinity, and women are relying less on marriage and children as the main criteria of femininity. In this sample, for instance, both sexes were equally likely to agree on the important aspects of their lives, in this descending order: love, job, sex, recognition, marriage, money, religion, and power. This is new. In the olden days, men would rank work, money, recognition and power as much more important than the softer side of life, quite the opposite of women.

But equality does not mean sameness. Men and women still want some differences to remain, and the lag between changing external conditions and changing beliefs means that people will be caught in uncertainty for a while. For example, many female respondents still want to look up to their men. We asked men how acceptable it would be to them if their wives or lovers were more intelligent than they, earned more money, or were more famous. We asked the women how they would feel about earning more money or being more intelligent and famous than their men. The men were more likely than the women to say such situations would be "totally acceptable" to them. Forty-five percent of the men but only 27 percent of the women would find the woman's greater intelligence "totally acceptable," and 18 percent of the men and 36 percent of the women would find it unacceptable. Curiously, both sexes said the woman's greater fame and fortune would be easier to accept than her greater intelligence, possibly because the former situation is less probable than the latter. Almost 90 percent of the men said it was acceptable for their wives to earn more money, but very few wives actually do earn more. We can't tell from these answers, unfortunately, whether men really would be more at ease than women in these situations, or whether the women know the men better than the men admit.

Percent saying trait is highly characteristic of themselves (men) or their husbands/current partner (women):

	Men	Women
Physically attractive	21	50
Aggressive	16	23
Physically strong	15	37
Competitive	26	33
Gentle	42	55
Soft	16	25
Warm	40	54
Romantic	33	34

Some evidence for the second interpretation comes from other questions. Women want to look up to their men, yes, but not while they are scrubbing the floor. The men are more likely to say they share housekeeping and routine childcare 50-50, but the women disagree with that perception, saying they do most of it, and that while their husbands approve of their working, they would not make personal adjustments to help them out. Men are also more satisfied with the division of labor than women (49 percent to 34 percent). These egalitarian males want to believe they are doing their share of domestic duties, but the realities may be closer to the traditional ways.

The sexes have different perceptions on another matter, a little item we put in at the last moment. When you are driving with your spouse or lover and lose your way, what are you most likely to do? (Women responded in terms of what their men were likely to do.) Half of the men said they would ask for directions themselves, but only one-fourth of the women said their men would do such a reasonable thing. Men either keep hunting by trial and error, the women said, or the women in desperation finally ask for directions. Which sex is more accurate? Why masculinity precludes asking for directions baffles me, unless it's a genetic throwback to the age when men couldn't stop to ask while hunting saber-toothed tigers.

Today there are as many styles of masculinity as a man could want, and it even appears that the machos and the feminists are becoming more tolerant of each other. The next report will contrast some of these styles, and also explore some of the background factors and current experiences that are related to different meanings of masculinity. For the moment, here is one reader who illustrates how much standards of masculinity have changed in this century:

"In 1910, when I was born, I was living in an era when men were really men, compared to whom modern examples of masculinity seem like a bunch of pansies. In those times to my young eyes, women were mostly a pain in the neck, and the males' main interest in them was to catch a glimpse of their ankles as they walked up or down stairs, but I never understood why. Women could never keep a confidence but were incurable tattletales, which was of utmost disgust to any men, who were strictly honorable in all their dealings. How the world has changed!"

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-L

I.C.7.

"Facilitators/Inhibitors of Career Development"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

C. Objective: Investigate and discuss the limitations which traditional stereotypes of femininity and masculinity place on career options.

7. Learning Strategy:

Note to leader:

This activity involves three parts. Workshop leaders can choose to do one or all of these parts depending on time limitations.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. The leader explains to the participants that they are to pair up with another person (preferably someone they do not know) and complete the following two statements:

1) I feel my career development was facilitated because of being female/male...

2) I feel my career development was inhibited because of being female/male...

The leader might, prior to this activity, consider the two statements and use personal examples in presenting this activity to participants. (Allow 15 minutes).

c. The leader asks two pairs to join together (preferably people who do not know each other), and instructs them to respond to the following statement:

I felt I facilitated or inhibited another person's career development...
(Allow 15 minutes for group sharing.)

d. After groups have finished sharing, reconvene as a large group and discuss. (Allow 15 minutes.) Suggested discussion questions are:

1) Were there any similarities in responses between you and your partner? Among your group of four? Discuss.

2) Were there any similarities among males in your group? Among females? Discuss.

3) What were some of the major differences between the responses of the males and the responses of the females in your groups?

4) Consider the facilitating and inhibiting effects of racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic class issues upon your career development.

5) What kinds of inhibitors would be faced by people with a physical disability?

6) How did it make you feel to consider your career development's being inhibited or facilitated because of your sex? Would you have liked to change the situation to make it more sex-equal? If so, how would you have liked to change the situation?

7) Which was easier for you to think of - when you were facilitated or when you were inhibited? Why?

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed: pens, paper

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list five ways in which careers can be facilitated and inhibited because of one's sex.

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-M

I.C.8.

PRESS RELEASE

"The New Superintendent"[1]

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

C. Objective: Investigate and discuss the limitations which traditional stereotypes of femininity and masculinity place on career options.

8. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity is designed to help participants begin to explore their unconscious attitudes and stereotypes about men's and women's roles. As it involves withholding information from the participants so that they do not know that they are responding to different stimuli, the activity should be undertaken only if the leader feels that the overall work of the group would not be adversely affected by using this method.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Divide the group into subgroups of three persons each.

c. Read the following directions to the participants before passing out the worksheets:

> "You should not talk or share information with others while you make written responses on the worksheets which you will receive. I cannot answer questions while you work. You should work fairly quickly; first impressions are going to be the most helpful. Five minutes should be enough time to complete this part of the activity."

d. Pass out the worksheets. Each subgroup member will receive a different one of the three separate statements on a sheet of paper. (The statements should be collated in groups of three beforehand so that distribution can be done quickly and without revealing that each member of the subgroup is receiving a different statement.)

e. The three statements are identical, except for the names. They read as follows:

> "D.A. Johnson (or Dorothy A. Johnson, or Donald A. Johnson) has just been hired as the new Superintendent of Schools for Megalopolis (pop. 500,000) and will be arriving to begin work on July 1."

---

[1] Adapted from M.E. Verheyden-Hilliard, A handbook for workshops on sex equality in education (Washington, D.C.: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1976).

Fill in responses to the following items which are to be included in the press release.

age ________________

salary ________________________________

educational background ____

physical description ____

marital status and family information __________________________

hobbies ____

previous work experience ______________________________________

f. When everyone has finished, the subgroups should spend 10-15 minutes 1) sharing their responses to the worksheet items and 2) discussing their assumptions underlying the responses. Each subgroup should be distributed a copy of the "Discussion Questions for 'The New Superintendent'" (attached).

g. The next 15-20 minutes should then be spent in the full group sharing information about the responses as well as feelings about the activity as a whole.

Alternative Strategy:

An alternate mode of conducting the activity would be to divide the large group into three subgroups of equal size, then distribute copies of one of the three press releases to each member of the subgroup so they can reach a consensus about the issues, and the results can be compared and contrasted by bringing the three subgroups back together to discuss their results. Comparison among the three Superintendents therefore would not be made until the entire group had been reconvened. If the group is quite large, the first method would be preferable to this alternative method.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Pencils, pens
Optional: blackboard or newsprint to consolidate data
Handouts: "Press Release" Worksheets (3 different ones)
"Discussion Questions for 'The New Superintendent'."

Outcome Criterion:

After completion of this activity, participants will write a short paragraph discussing previously unconscious sex-related biases and stereotypes.

PRESS RELEASE

"The New Superintendent"

D.A. Johnson has just been hired as the new Superintendent of Schools for Megalopolis (pop. 500,000), and will be arriving to begin work on July 1.

Fill in responses to the following items which are to be included in the press release:

age:

salary:

educational background:

physical description:

marital status and family information:

hobbies:

previous work experience:

PRESS RELEASE

"The New Superintendent"

Dorothy A. Johnson has just been hired as the new Superintendent of Schools for Megalopolis (pop. 500,000), and will be arriving to begin work on July 1.

Fill in responses to the following items which are to be included in the press release:

age:

salary:

educational background:

physical description:

marital status and family information:

hobbies:

previous work experience:

PRESS RELEASE

"The New Superintendent"

Donald A. Johnson has just been hired as the new Superintendent of Schools for Megalopolis (pop. 500,000), and will be arriving to begin work on July 1.

Fill in responses to the following items which are to be included in the press release:

age:

salary:

educational background:

physical description:

marital status and family information:

hobbies:

previous work experience:

Discussion Questions for "The New Superintendent"

(1) What assumptions did you make about the three superintendents in the press release?

(2) What different kinds of data were elicited for each of the "Superintendents?" What were the reasons for these differences?

(3) On which items would you have responded differently if you had received either of the other two names? Why?

(4) What generalizations can you make about how this activity relates to the issue of sex-role stereotyping? Stereotyping of other kinds (race, age, income, physical handicap, marital status)?

"Masculine/Feminine - A Reading"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

C. Objective: Investigate and discuss the limitations which traditional stereotypes of femininity and masculinity place on career options.

9. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This is a powerful reading that can be used effectively either as a stimulus for discussion or for closure in a workshop session.

This strategy is most effective if participants are prepared to sit back, relax, listen and put themselves into the activity. Sometimes playing soft music at the beginning or using a relaxation technique can help establish an appropriate atmosphere for the experience.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have a man and woman read "Masculine/Feminine" to large group, alternating statements as appropriate.

c. Discuss:

1) How did you feel hearing what was just read?
2) What parts related/did not relate to you?
3) How do you think you would have felt if you were the other sex?
4) What implications does this "game" have for the development of persons? For careers?
5) What does this say about one of the differences between feminine and masculine characteristics? Do these characteristics or definitions vary for different racial groups and/or by socioeconomic class?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Attached article: "Masculine/Feminine" (Roszak and Roszak, 1969).

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list three major points from the reading.

*"MASCULINE/FEMININE"**

He is playing masculine. She is playing feminine.

He is playing masculine because she is playing feminine. She is playing feminine because he is playing masculine.

He is playing the kind of man that she thinks the kind of woman she is playing ought to admire. She is playing the kind of woman that he thinks the kind of man he is playing ought to desire.

If he were not playing masculine, he might well be more feminine than she is--except when she is playing very feminine. If she were not playing feminine, she might well be more masculine than he is--except when he is playing very masculine.

So he plays harder. And she plays . . . softer.

He wants to make sure that she could never be more masculine than he. She wants to make sure that he could never be more feminine than she. He therefore seeks to destroy the femininity in himself. She therefore seeks to destroy the masculinity in herself.

She is supposed to admire him for the masculinity in him that she fears in herself. He is supposed to desire her for the femininity in her that he despises in himself.

He desires her for her femininity which is his femininity, but which he can never lay claim to. She admires him for his masculinity which is her masculinity, but which she can never lay claim to. Since he may only love his own femininity in her, he envies her her femininity. Since she may only love her own masculinity in him, she envies him his masculinity.

The envy poisons their love.

He, coveting her unattainable femininity, decides to punish her. She, coveting his unattainable masculinity, decides to punish him. He denigrates her femininity - which he is supposed to desire and which he really envies - and becomes more aggressively masculine. She feigns disgust at his masculinity - which she is supposed to admire and which she really envies - and becomes more fastidiously feminine. He is becoming less and less what he wants to be. She is becoming less and less what she wants to be. But now he is more manly than ever, and she is more womanly than ever.

Her femininity, growing more dependently supine, becomes contemptible. His masculinity, growing more oppressively domineering, becomes intolerable. At last she loathes what she has helped his masculinity to become. At last he loathes what he has helped her femininity to become.

---

*Excerpt from: "Introduction." In Roszak, B., and Roszak, T., eds., Masculine/feminine: Readings in sexual mythology and the liberation of women. (New York: Harper and Row, 1969), pp. vii-viii. Permission granted.

So far, it has all been very symmetrical. But we have left one thing out.

The world belongs to what his masculinity has become.

The reward for what his masculinity has become is power. The reward for what her femininity has become is only the security which his power can bestow upon her. If he were to yield to what her femininity has become, he would be yielding to contemptible incompetence. If she were to acquire what his masculinity has become, she would participate in intolerable coerciveness.

She is stifling under the triviality of her femininity. The world is groaning beneath the terrors of his masculinity. He is playing masculine. She is playing feminine. How do we call off the game?

P/E SR-M/H
CD-L TL-M

I.C.10.

"Androgyny Test"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

C. Objective: Investigate and discuss the limitations which traditional stereotypes of femininity and masculinity place on career options.

10. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

The concept of androgyny (the idea that each person has both masculine and feminine characteristics within) is very important to an understanding of sex roles. This activity will enable participants to read and discuss the topic. In addition, the personal application of the concept through the "Androgyny Test" will help them clarify and internalize their understanding. This activity may best be used in the middle or end of a training sequence where the trust level is moderately high in the group. Androgyny, often misunderstood in its implications, can be highly threatening to some participants. Full discussion of the exercise is important.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants complete worksheet ("Describe Yourself") in attached article, "Society's Influence on Sex-Role Development."

c. Hand out scoring directions and allow time for self-scoring.

d. In a large group, discuss what participants learned about themselves as a result of completing the test.

  1) Do they see themselves as masculine or feminine or a combination?
  2) What implications does androgyny have for their future career development (including life style considerations)?
  3) What are their reactions to the test?
  4) Would they like to change the way they scored on the test? How?
  5) What are the implications for their students?
  6) What societal changes (including their institutions) would be needed?

e. Have participants read "Androgyny vs. the Tight Little Lives of Fluffy Women and Chesty Men."

f. Ask participants to discuss and react to the article.

g. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Materials: Worksheet and scoring directions in "Society's Influence on Sex-Role Development"
Attached Article: "Androgyny vs. the Tight Little Lives of Fluffy Women and Chesty Men" (Bem, 1975)
Reference: Birk (1976)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will complete, score, and discuss the implications of androgyny test for themselves in their journals.

*SOCIETY'S INFLUENCE ON SEX-ROLE DEVELOPMENT**

Before we begin the discussion on the development of sex roles, we would like you to complete the following rating scale. The scale measures the extent to which you think certain characteristics are true of you. We will then be able to use that information in the discussion that follows.

On the following page, you will be shown a large number of personality characteristics. We would like you to use those characteristics in order to describe yourself. That is, we would like you to indicate, on a scale from 1 to 7, how true these various characteristics are to you. Please do not leave any characteristics unmarked.

Example: Sly

Mark "1" if it is NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE that you are sly.

Mark "2" if it is USUALLY NOT TRUE that you are sly.

Mark "3" if it is SOMETIMES BUT INFREQUENTLY TRUE that you are sly.

Mark "4" if it is OCCASIONALLY TRUE that you are sly.

Mark "5" if is is OFTEN TRUE that you are sly.

Mark "6" if it is USUALLY TRUE that you are sly.

Mark "7" if it is ALWAYS OR ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE that you are sly.

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* Birk, J.M. Providing life/career planning for women and girls. Washington: National Consortium on Competency-Based Staff Development, in cooperation with American Institutes for Research, 1976.

I.C.10
(cont'd)

DESCRIBE YOURSELF

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE	USUALLY NOT TRUE	SOMETIMES BUT INFREQUENTLY TRUE	OCCASIONALLY TRUE	OFTEN TRUE	USUALLY TRUE	ALWAYS OR ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE

Self-reliant
Yielding
Helpful
Defends own beliefs
Cheerful
Moody
Independent
Shy
Conscientious
Athletic
Affectionate
Theatrical
Assertive
Flatterable
Happy
Strong personality
Loyal
Unpredictable
Forceful
Feminine
Reliable

Analytical
Sympathetic
Jealous
Has leadership abilities
Sensitive to the needs of others
Truthful
Willing to take risks
Understanding
Secretive
Makes decisions easily
Compassionate
Sincere
Self-sufficient
Eager to soothe hurt feelings
Conceited
Dominant
Soft-spoken
Likable

Masculine
Warm
Solemn
Willing to take a stand
Tender
Friendly
Aggressive
Gullible
Inefficient
Acts as a leader
Childlike
Adaptable
Individualistic
Does not use harsh language
Unsystematic
Competitive
Loves children
Tactful
Ambitious
Gentle
Conventional

Directions for Scoring

1. Starting with the first descriptor, "self-reliant," and continuing to the last, "conventional," precede each descriptor with either an M (standing for masculine), an F (standing for feminine) or an N (standing for neuter). Continue in that fashion, that is, M,F,N,M,F,N...
2. For all adjectives that are masculine (that is, "self-reliant" and every third adjective thereafter), add your rating, then divide by 20 to get the average masculine score.
3. For the feminine adjectives (that is, "yielding" and every third adjective thereafter), add your ratings, then divide by 20 to get the average feminine score.
4. Subtract the mean masculine score from the mean feminine score. The difference is your Androgyny score. Feminine Score-Masculine Score = Androgyny.
5. Minus scores are representative of masculine-typed persons and plus scores are representative of feminine-typed persons. Scores within the range of -1 to +1 are representative of androgynous types.

Androgyny - An Explanation

The rating scale you just completed and scored is the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (Bem, 1974). It is a measure of the construct, Androgyny. By looking at ourselves in terms of how androgynous we are or not, we are able to see the extent that our behaviors and personality characteristics are, according to society's stereotypes, either "feminine" or "masculine."

What does it mean to be androgynous? If you are androgynous, then you are someone who has access to the full range of behavioral and emotional responses, and who freely can choose a response based on its appropriateness to the situation. An individual who is masculine-typed is mainly characterized by traits which society has labeled "masculine." Such a person would find it difficult to display a "feminine" trait, such as compassion, even when the situation would appropriately elicit compassion. Likewise, a person who is feminine-typed would find it difficult to demonstrate a "masculine" trait, such as assertiveness, even when the situation would appropriately elicit that response. The androgynous person, on the other hand, is not typed one way or the other. The androgynous person possesses the full range of potential qualities, from masculine to feminine. Such a person, then, can respond to a situation based on what is appropriate, and is not limited by one sex-typed set of characteristics or the other.

Society has not made it easy for individuals to develop a broad range of characteristics. On the contrary, if you are a woman you have been reinforced for developing the "feminine" characteristics, and if you have been man you have been reinforced throughout life for showing the "masculine" traits. The advantages of being androgynous are clear:

1) If you are a woman, you are comfortable with your feminine identity; you possess such characteristics as tenderness, affection, and nurturance, but you also possess and are able to demonstrate assertiveness, dominance, and other "masculine" traits when the situation calls for them.
2) If you are a man, you are comfortable with being a man; you possess the characteristics that are socially reinforcing for men, such as leadership, competitiveness, and independence, but you are also comfortable with showing warmth, dependence and other "feminine" traits when the situation calls for them.

In relationship to careers, the individual who possesses a broad range of personality characteristics is most likely to consider a wide array of careers when faced with career decision making. Since the androgynous person isn't restricted to behaviors and roles traditional for his or her sex, career decisions would most likely be made on the basis of interest, skills, values, and potential rather than on stereotypic expectations. (See Bem, 1975, for a more complete discussion of the concept of Androgyny).

ANDROGYNY VS. THE TIGHT LITTLE LIVES OF FLUFFY WOMEN AND CHESTY MEN[1]

by Sandra Lipsitz Bem

In American society, men are supposed to be masculine, and women are supposed to be feminine, and neither sex is supposed to be much like the other. If men are independent, tough and assertive, women should be dependent, sweet and retiring. A womanly woman may be tender and nurturant, but no manly man may be so.

For years we have taken these polar opposites as evidence of psychological health. Even our psychological tests of masculinity and femininity reflect this bias: a person scores as either masculine or feminine, but the tests do not allow a person to say that he or she is both.

I have come to believe that we need a new standard of psychological health for the sexes, one that removes the burden of stereotype and allows people to feel free to express the best traits of men and women. As many feminists have argued, freeing people from rigid sex roles and allowing them to be androgynous (from "andro," male, and "gyne," female) should make them more flexible in meeting new situations, and less restricted in what they can do and how they can express themselves.

In fact, there is already considerable evidence that traditional sex typing is unhealthy. For example, high femininity in females consistently correlates with high anxiety, low self-esteem, and low self-acceptance. And although high masculinity in males has been related to better psychological adjustment during adolescence, it is often accompanied during adulthood by high anxiety, high neuroticism, and low self-acceptance. Further, greater intellectual development has quite consistently correlated with cross-sex typing (masculinity in girls, femininity in boys). Boys who are strongly masculine and girls who are strongly feminine tend to have lower overall intelligence, lower spatial ability, and show lower creativity.

In addition, it seems to me that traditional sex typing necessarily restricts behavior. Because people learn, during their formative years, to suppress any behavior that might be considered undesirable or inappropriate for their sex, men are afraid to do "women's work," and women are afraid to enter "man's world." Men are reluctant to be gentle, and women to be assertive. In contrast, androgynous people are not limited by labels. They are able to do whatever they want, both in their behavior and their feelings.

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[1] From: Reprinted from Psychology Today Magazine, September 1975, pp. 58-62. c 1975, Ziff-Davis Publishing Company. Permission granted.

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A MEASURE OF ANDROGYNY

I decided to study this question, to see whether sex-typed people really were more restricted and androgynous people more adaptable. Because I needed a way to measure how masculine, feminine, or androgynous a person was, I developed the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI), which consists of a list of 60 personality characteristics: 20 traditionally masculine (ambitious, self-reliant, independent, assertive); 20 traditionally feminine (affectionate, gentle, understanding, sensitive to the needs of others); and 20 neutral (truthful, friendly, likable). I gave a list of 400 such traits to a group of undergraduates, who rated the desirability of each characteristic either "for a man" or "for a woman." I drew the final list for the BSRI from those characteristics that both males and females rated as being significantly more desirable for one sex than for the other.

The masculine, feminine and neutral characteristics appear in random order on the test, and a person indicates on a scale of one ("never or almost never true") to seven ("always or almost always true") how accurate each word is as a self-description. The difference between the total points assigned to masculine and feminine adjectives indicates the degree of a person's sex typing. If masculinity and femininity scores are approximately equal, the individual has an androgynous sex role.

My colleagues and I have given the BSRI to more than 1,500 undergraduates at Stanford University. Semester after semester, we find that about 50 percent of the students adhere to "appropriate" sex roles, about 15 percent are cross-sex typed, and about 35 percent are androgynous.

With the BSRI in hand, we were in a position to find out whether sex-typed people really were restricted and androgynous people really more adaptable. Our strategy was to measure a number of behaviors that were stereotypically either masculine or feminine. We selected these particular actions to represent the very best of what masculinity and femininity have come to stand for, and we felt that any healthy adult should be capable of them. We predicted that sex-typed people would do well only when the behavior was traditionally considered appropriate for his or her sex, whereas those who were androgynous would do well regardless of the sex-role stereotype attached to the particular action.

The masculine behaviors that we selected were independence and assertiveness. The study of independence brought students to the lab for what they thought was an experiment on humor. In fact, they were there to test conformity versus independence of judgment. Karen Rook and Robyn Stickney placed each person in a booth equipped with microphones and earphones, and showed him or her a series of cartoons that had been rated earlier for humorous quality. As a new cartoon appeared on the screen, the students heard the experimenter call on each person in turn for his or her rating. Although they believed that they were hearing each other's voices, they were in fact listening to a preprogrammed tape. To provoke the student into conformity, the tape included 36 trials during which the taped voices answered the experimenter falsely, agreeing that a particular cartoon was funny when it wasn't, or vice versa.

THE LIMITATIONS OF FEMININITY

We predicted that feminine women would be less independent than anyone else, and we were right. They were far more likely to conform to the incorrect taped judgments than masculine men or androgynous students of either sex. Only 33 percent of the feminine women were very independent (more independent than the average of all students), compared to 70 percent of the masculine and androgynous students.

Jeffrey Wildfogel carried out a similar study to measure assertiveness. He called students on the telephone with an unreasonable request: when would they be willing to spend over two hours, without pay, to fill out a questionnaire about their reactions to various insurance policies for students? At no time did he actually ask *whether* the people he called would be willing to participate. He simply assumed that they would, and asked them to indicate when they would be available.

In this situation, agreeing would cost a person time, effort and inconvenience, but refusing required the student to assert his or her preferences over those of the caller. The preliminary results confirmed our expectation that feminine women would find it harder to be assertive than anyone else. When Wildfogel asked the students later how difficult it was to turn the caller down, 67 percent of the feminine women said they found it very difficult, compared to only 28 percent of the masculine men and androgynous students.

The feminine behaviors that we selected all measure the extent to which a person was willing to be responsible for or helpful toward another living creature. We expected that this time the masculine men would be at a disadvantage.

In the first study, Jenny Jacobs measured how responsive people were toward a six-week-old kitten. When students came to the lab, Jacobs explained that she wanted to see how different activities would affect their moods. Actually, we wanted only to determine their reaction to the kitten. For one of the activities, therefore, we put a kitten into the room and asked the student to respond to it in any way he or she wished. We simply recorded how often the student touched or petted the kitten. Later on in the experiment, we gave each person the opportunity to do anything in the lab room that he or she wanted: play with the kitten, read magazines, work puzzles, play with a three-dimensional tilting maze, or whatever. This time we measured how much the students played with the kitten when they didn't have to.

As expected, the masculine men were less playful than anyone else. Only nine percent of them showed a high level of playfulness with the kitten, compared to 52 percent of all other students. But there was an unexpected result: the androgynous women played with the kitten more often than feminine women, who are presumably so fond of small, cuddly things, 64 percent to 36 percent.

MACHO MALES AND CUDDLY BABIES

We conducted two further tests--this time with human beings instead of kittens. Carol Watson and Bart Astor measured how responsible people would be toward a six-month-old baby. The students thought the study was about babies' reactions to strangers, but actually we observed the students' reactions to the baby. We left each person alone with the infant for 10 minutes while the experimenter and one of the baby's parents watched from a one-way mirror. We recorded what each person did, such as how often he or she talked to the baby, smiled at it, or picked it up. Once again, the masculine men were the least likely to play much with the baby. Only 21 percent of them were highly responsive, compared to half of all the other students. And this time the feminine women did respond warmly, but no more than the androgynous women.

The last experiment, conducted by Wendy Martyna and Dorothy Ginsberg, explored people's reactions to a person with emotional problems. The students came to the lab in pairs for what they thought was a study of acquaintance, and they drew lots so that one would be a "talker" and the other a "listener." In fact, the talker was our confederate who delivered a memorized script of personal problems. The listener was allowed to ask questions or to make comments, but never to shift the focus of the conversation away from the talker. We recorded the listener's reactions, such as how often he or she nodded and made sympathetic comments, and later we asked each listener how concerned he or she felt about the talker's problems.

Again, the masculine men were the least responsive; only 14 percent of them were above average in reacting sympathetically or in showing concern, compared to 60 percent of the other students. And the feminine women reacted most strongly to the talker, showing more concern than even the androgynous women.

The pattern of results for these five experiments suggests that rigid sex roles can seriously restrict behavior. This is especially the case for men. The masculine men did masculine things very well, but they did not do feminine things. They were independent and assertive when they needed to be, but they weren't responsive to the kitten, or the baby, or to a person in need. In other words, they lacked the ability to express warmth, playfulness and concern, important human--if traditionally feminine--traits.

Similarly, the feminine women were restricted in their ability to express masculine characteristics. They did feminine things--played with the baby, responded with concern and support for the troubled talker--but they weren't independent in judgment or assertive of their own preferences. And for some reason, they didn't respond to the kitten; perhaps feminine women also are afraid of animals.

In contrast, the androgynous men and women did just about everything. They could be independent and assertive when they needed to be, and warm and responsive in appropriate situations. It didn't matter, in other words, whether a behavior was stereotypically masculine or feminine; they did equally well on both.

THE RIGID BARS OF SEX ROLES

In order to find out whether sex-typed people actually avoid opposite-sex behavior, Ellen Lenney and I designed a study in which people could choose an action to perform for pay. We said that we were going to photograph them for a later study, and that we didn't care at all how well they did each activity. In fact, we gave them only one minute for each performance, long enough for a convincing photo, but not long enough for them to complete the task.

Then we gave the students 30 pairs of activities, and asked them to select one from each pair to act out for pay. Some of these pairs pitted masculine activities against feminine ones (oiling a hinge versus preparing a baby bottle); some pitted feminine against neutral (winding yarn into a ball versus sorting newspapers by geographical area); and some pitted masculine against neutral (nailing boards together versus peeling an orange).

We predicted that masculine men and feminine women would consistently avoid the activity that was inappropriate for their sex, even though it always paid more. We were right. Such individuals were actually ready to lose money to avoid acting in trivial ways that are characteristic of the opposite sex. That was particularly true when the person running the experiment was a member of the opposite sex. In that case, fully 71 percent of the sex-typed students chose highly stereotyped activities compared to only 42 percent of the androgynous students.

We went one step further, because we wondered how sex-typed people would feel about themselves if they had to carry out an opposite-sex activity. We asked all the students to perform three masculine, three feminine, and three neutral activities while we photographed them, and then they indicated on a series of scales how each activity made them feel about themselves. Masculine men and feminine women felt much worse than androgynous people about doing a cross-sex task. Traditional men felt less masculine if they had to, say, prepare a baby bottle, and traditional women felt less feminine if they had to nail boards together. When the experimenter was a member of the opposite sex, sex-typed students were especially upset about acting out of role. They felt less attractive and likable, more nervous and peculiar, less masculine or feminine, and didn't particularly enjoy the experience.

ANDROGYNY IS DESTINY

This research persuades me that traditional concepts of masculinity and femininity do restrict a person's behavior in important ways. In a modern complex society like ours, an adult has to be assertive, independent and self-reliant, but traditional femininity makes many women unable to behave in these ways. On the other hand, an adult must also be able to relate to other people, to be sensitive to their needs and concerned about their welfare, as well as to be able to depend on them for emotional support. But traditional masculinity keeps men from responding in such supposedly feminine ways.

Androgyny, in contrast, allows an individual to be both independent and tender, assertive and yielding, masculine and feminine. Thus androgyny greatly expands the range of behavior open to everyone, permitting people to cope more effectively with diverse situations. As such, I hope that androgyny will some day come to define a new and more human standard of psychological health.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

"I always thought I was androgynous," says Sandra Lipsitz Bem, "and I didn't like the fact that I wasn't represented anywhere on psychological tests." She finally decided to merge her political and scientific interests and find out what the consequences of traditional sex roles really were. Together with her husband Daryl, Bem has studied sex-biased job advertising, given speeches on sex roles and the changing nature of marriage, and created a model for the modern equal relationship that even having a child has not disrupted. Bem took her Ph.D. in developmental psychology from the University of Michigan, and is now an assistant professor of psychology at Stanford.

E SR-H
CD-L TL-M/H

I.C.11.

"The Androgynous Personality"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

C. Objective: Investigate and discuss the limitations which traditional stereotypes of femininity and masculinity place on career options.

11. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Some of the sex-role literature suggests that there are three stages of sex-role development: 1) undifferentiated, 2) polarized, and 3) sex-role transcendent. The polarized masculine/feminine is probably the stage to which most of us are exposed through our socialization. Recently, the concept of androgyny, which probably could be categorized between polarization and transcendence, has been gaining acceptance. It assumes that each person has both masculine and feminine characteristics within her/him which allow for fuller personal development and a wider range of behaviors. Sex-role transcenders refuse to be bound by tradition or prescribed roles and engage in behaviors based on their own uniqueness, talents, and preferences. It is suggested that both sex-role transcenders and androgynous people have the opportunity to be free to experience fuller lives. Discussion of these sex-role stages can help clarify questions of sex roles and enhance understanding of gender identity and sex-role identity. Leader should read Bem (1975) before leading this strategy. Any person who prefers not to participate should have that right.

Instructions:

a. Explain the concept of androgyny as defined by Bem.

b. Have participants draw on a sheet of paper or a 4 x 6 card symbols depicting some part or characteristic of their own personality often associated with the other sex. For example, a woman with high achievement needs might picture a ladder showing how she has a lot of achievement motivation and drive typically associated with men.

c. Have participants engage in free milling around the room, sharing their own androgynous traits with as many individuals (one at a time) as possible, and also their feelings about it. If preferred, participants may join in groups of three or four to do their sharing.

d. In large groups discuss what participants learned and felt during the activity.

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 5 minutes to draw symbol
20 minutes to mill and share
5 minutes to process

Resources Needed:

Materials: 4 x 6 cards, magic markers, pens
Reference: Bem (1975)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list two awarenesses they gained from the strategy.

P/E SR-M
CD-L TL-L

I.C.12.

"Are Women Persons?"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

C. Objective: Investigate and discuss the limitations which traditional stereotypes of femininity and masculinity place on career options.

12. Learning Strategy:

Note to leader:

Studies by Broverman et al. (1972)* asked mental health practitioners and college students to define a mature adult man, woman, and person. Results showed that the descriptions for a mature adult man and a mature adult person were similar. But a mature adult woman was described as more emotional, irrational, easily excitable, less adventurous, etc.

The purpose of the following strategy is to have participants discover the impact of sex-role socialization on how women and men are perceived by doing a quick study patterned on Broverman's. Note, though, that for a number of reasons, participants may not have the same results as the above study; be ready to discuss possible reasons for this. It could be because the people in the study somehow know what the purpose was. Or it could be because there is a "new catechism" operating; that is, that some people have picked up the rhetoric and superficial aspects of equality for women and men, but their beliefs and behaviors haven't really changed. The possibility of a study such as this revealing underlying sex biases in these instances then are limited, but the discussion about these reasons can provide needed insight into the change process.

Prior to the workshop, ask participants to conduct a study at their institution. Give them copies of "Guidelines for Conducting Study," attached. This can be done with a class, advising staff, counselors, department personnel, parent groups, etc.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Participants bring their data to the workshop. Then collate characteristics for each list (person, woman, man) by making three columns on the board or on newsprint, with the headings "person," "woman," "man," and having participants share characteristics from their lists.

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*Although Broverman has not found significant differences across race, it should be noted that others have (O'Leary, 1977), and one should therefore be aware of possible differences in feminine/masculine stereotypes across race, age, class and religious groups.

c. Discuss in large group: Are "woman" and "person" similar or different? "Man" and "person"? "Woman" and "man"?

d. In small groups:

If differences appeared, discuss:

How does this affect your own career development?

If no differences appeared, discuss:

Is there a "new catechism" operating, or have people's beliefs about women changed? Do you feel any pressure, from yourself or others, to be feminine or masculine? If there is a "new catechism" operating, what implications does that have for your counseling or advising? Have you felt this dynamic in your own life?

e. Summarize in large group.

Alternative Strategy:

You could bypass the external study and instead have the participants themselves do it in small groups (but don't tell them the purpose). Break into three groups and give each group one of the lists to do. Then proceed with a. through d. above.

Minimum Time Required: 35-45 minutes during session. (Additional time outside of workshop to conduct study.)

Resources Needed:

Materials: Prior to workshop have participants conduct study. Give them attached handout, "Guidelines for Conducting Study."
Handout: "Guidelines for Conducting Study"
References: Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, and Rosenkrantz (1972)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will summarize data from their own institutions and analyze the effects of femininity-masculinity pressures on their own career development.

GUIDELINES FOR CONDUCTING STUDY

Studies by Broverman et al. (1972) asked mental health practioners and college students to define a mature adult man, woman, and person. Results showed that the descriptions for a mature adult man and a mature adult person were similar. But a mature adult woman was described as more emotional, irrational, easily excitable, less adventurous, etc.

You will now be trying to redo the study (though the Broverman et al. method and instruments will not be used). Select a group--a class, group of advisers, counselors--preferably from your own educational institution. Then put each of the three statements below on a separate ditto and make copies for your group (or perhaps the workshop leader will have this done for you). The statements are:

Sheet # 1: Please write down all the characteristics (nouns or adjectives) that describe a mature adult person.

Sheet # 2: Please write down all the characteristics (nouns or adjectives) that describe a mature adult woman.

Sheet # 3: Please write down all the characteristics (nouns or adjectives) that describe a mature adult man.

Pass out only one of these statements to each person in your study. (Be sure that equal amounts of each sheet of the three sheets are passed out to the total group.) Explain that you are in a workshop that includes a look at psychological development and you want their perceptions of mature adult persons. Do not explain any further and do not use the words "women and men."

Collect the sheets and tabulate the results so that you will be ready to share them during the workshop.

Note: You may also wish to share your results (and the workshop results) with the group(s) who participated in your study.

P/E SR-M
CD-H TL-L

I.C.13.

"Impact of Social Policy"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

C. Objective: Investigate and discuss the limitations which traditional stereotypes of femininity and masculinity place on career options.

13. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Most people are not aware of the extent to which government social policy decisions affect equal opportunity for women and men. This strategy is to raise awareness of this fact, as well as to stimulate reflection on the value issues involved. A fairly high consciousness of sex-role issues in participants may make this strategy more useful. The strategy should be placed at the middle or end of an activity sequence.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Pass out copies of "None of This Is Anti-Feminist" and ask participants to read it. (At some point, be sure to call attention to the date--March, 1977.)

c. Discuss in large group (or in small groups) the following questions:

1) What are the main points of the article?
2) What were your overall reactions to the article? What did you agree and disagree with?
3) Who are the secondary workers who "could take the poorer paid jobs"?
4) Is it just an oversight that the speaker talks about encouraging women who are single parents to remarry but doesn't mention men who are single parents?
5) Do you think social policy related to employment practices should determine that wages and jobs be based on need, e.g., that families which need more income should receive first chance at jobs?

(This of course has been an assumption that has been applied only to women as a group; i.e., it has been assumed that women as a group don't need an income because their husbands will support them.)

6) If one believes, as the writer does, that in most cases it is important to provide the male head of the family with the opportunity to work, what are the implications for recent fair employment laws and policies for women? For minorities?

7) Besides employment, how are other kinds of social policy areas (e.g., credit, social security, pensions) affected by the policy he proposes?
8) How has social policy affected women who also belong to a racial group other than white?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30-45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Handouts: "None of This Is Anti-Feminist" (1977)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will identify and explain three implications for women of the social policy the writer proposes.

From a March, 1977 internal Labor Department memo on welfare reform from Arnold Packer, Assistant Secretary for Policy Evaluation and Research, to Secretary F. Ray Marshall (emphases added):

*"NONE OF THIS IS ANTI-FEMINIST"**

"...One can think of the traditional American family structure with two parents and children in which the family head goes out to work and makes enough of a living to keep the family together. *The major thrust of any program ought to be to support this as the predominant situation for Americans.* Secondly, for families in which there are small children and only one parent, there should be enough support for those families to live a dignified life. *The incentives should be arranged so that individuals prefer the two-parent arrangement. The earnings at work should be sufficiently greater than the dole on welfare to encourage families to stay together or to encourage women who are single parents to remarry.* Meeting these objectives means providing jobs and/or training to family heads who are unemployed and earning subsidies to working poor families.

"...Although many persons do work for very low wages, the greater portion of these workers do not have family responsibilities. Moreover, secondary workers are coming into the labor force at a rapid rate and these could take the poorer paid jobs that are left open as family heads move on to better positions. We are looking at the data now and hope to be able to support that statement with some facts.

"...Economists are not accustomed to differentiating among people on the basis of family responsibilities. According to the theory, individual wages should equal their marginal product and should not be based upon need. The significance of the family itself has no place in the traditional theory. *But the family may be the most important institution in the country.* While policy should not strive to keep bad marriages together, it should strive to provide an economic foundation families can depend on. Therefore, it seems especially important that family heads be given the opportunity to have a decent job.

"The policy conclusion is to target the public service jobs on families and not on individuals. None of this is anti-feminist. It could be the woman in the family who takes the job. Moreover, job availability provides enough financial independence for a woman to leave a bad marriage situation and know that she can make a living on her own. *But for most cases, it is important to provide the male head of the family with the opportunity to work."*

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*From: "None of This Is Anti-feminist," The Spokeswoman, July 15, 1977, 8, p. 10. Copyright Women's Washington Representative, 854 National Press Bldg., Washington, D.C. 20045. Reprinted with permission.

P/E SR-M
CD-L TL-H

I.D.1.

"Magic Seminar"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

D. Objective: Identify factors which influence various female and male career development patterns.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity is a good one to use to raise the trust level of groups and to generate support groups. Presentations on distinguishing between assertive-aggressive-passive should occur prior to this strategy (see VI.D.3. and VI.D.4.).

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Leader establishes rules for seminar. Leader must strictly enforce these rules if the strategy is to be effective.

   1) Everyone has his/her own personal space.
   2) Everyone will have a chance to talk.
   3) No put-downs or evaluations allowed.
   4) You may ask contributor to clarify statements.
   5) "Own" your feelings and opinions.
   6) Everyone should listen attentively and use first names.

c. Form small groups, and pass out "Rules and Cues" handout to each group. Facilitators are to pick out one of the following cues as topics for discussion (listed on handout also):

   1) A time I felt good being a man (male)/woman (female).
   2) A time I felt bad being a man (male)/woman (female).
   3) A time I felt good and bad being a woman/man.
   4) A time I got in trouble for my sex-role attitudes.
   5) A time I felt uncomfortable in dealing with an aggressive man/woman.
   6) A time I felt uncomfortable in dealing with an assertive man/woman.
   7) A time I felt uncomfortable in dealing with a passive man/woman.
   8) A time I got in trouble for my sex/race-role attitudes.
   9) Use your own topic.

d. At end of session, leader and members sum up by noting similarities and differences in contributions.

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes to 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Rules and Cues"

Outcome Criteria:

At end of workshop, participants will write one paragraph about their feelings about the seminar using the following:

1) "What I enjoyed about the seminar was..."
2) "What I would change about the seminar..."

RULES AND CUES

Magic Seminar Rules

1) Everyone has his/her own personal space.

2) Everyone will have a chance to talk.

3) No put-downs or evaluations allowed.

4) You may ask contributor to clarify statements.

5) "Own" your feelings and opinions.

6) Everyone should listen attentively and use first names.

Magic Seminar Cues

1) A time I felt good being a man (male)/woman (female).

2) A time I felt bad being a man (male)/woman (female).

3) A time I felt good and bad about being a woman/man.

4) A time I got in trouble for my sex-role attitudes.

5) A time I felt uncomfortable in dealing with an aggressive man/woman.

6) A time I felt uncomfortable in dealing with an assertive man/woman.

7) A time I felt uncomfortable in dealing with a passive man/woman.

8) A time I got in trouble for my sex/race-role attitudes.

9) Use your own topic.

Note: You may wish to modify the above cues to include references to age, race, ethnicity, economic class, etc. For example: "A time I felt uncomfortable in dealing with an assertive Black/Caucasian man/woman."

"Role Identification"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

D. Objective: Identify factors which influence various female and male career development patterns.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity provides participants with an opportunity to identify current roles they play, the relation of these roles to career development, and the value which they assign to these roles.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Have participants separate into groups of four or five. Hand out five 3 x 5 cards to each group member. Ask each participant to place one role they currently play on each card. (Examples might be teacher, counselor, parent, student, friend, etc.) Then ask group members to rank-order the roles, most important on the bottom (No. 5) least important on top (No. 1). Have one member at a time discard one role and share what the role means (value) to them, its relation to career development, how they feel without it and how the role might or might not be different if they were of the other sex. Members should continue to discard roles until the last or most important has gone. When the last role has been reached ask the member to share with the group the feeling of being without the other roles and why this role was kept. Ask them to think about roles they would like to assume and then reconstruct five roles. (They may be the same, similar, or quite different.)

Direct members to pay close attention to how roles might be different if they were the other sex or had a different career. Also, have changing sex roles had an impact on roles they currently hold/want to hold? Are there differences related to race, socioeconomic class, or ethnic background?

c. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 - 1 1/2 hours.

Resources Needed:

Materials: 3 x 5 cards; markers.

Outcome Criterion: Participants will share five roles and relate these roles to career development and sex-role socialization.

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-L

I.D.3.

"Breaking Stereotypes"*

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

D. Objective: Identify factors which influence various female and male career development patterns.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity provides a lighthearted, creative opportunity to do some initial thinking about the concepts of stereotyping in general and sex-role stereotyping in particular.

Instructions:

a. Explain goals and objective of strategy.

b. Hand out copies of "Breaking Stereotypes - Worksheet," and ask each participant to complete form. Directions are on the form but leader may wish to go over them anyway.

c. In small groups, discuss the responses. Some sample questions are:

1) What kinds of attributes were most helpful in generating the reverse stereotypes?

2) How many of the stereotypes are directly related to the person's being a female or a male? Or a member of a specific racial group?

3) For persons to fill one of the roles listed, how necessary is it for them to fit the criteria of the stereotype (i.e., could a person fill the role without fitting the stereotype)?

4) What kinds of forces keep stereotypes intact? Are there ever any advantages in stereotyping?

d. Summarize in large group.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes.

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Breaking Stereotypes - Worksheet" (Benson, Carlson, and Larsen, 1976)

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*Adapted from: Benson, A., Carlson, L., and Larsen, J. Stereotyping, St. Paul, Minnesota: Benson, Carlson, Larsen Publishing, 1976. (Address: 2029 Palace Avenue, St. Paul, Minnesota 55105.)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list 10 stereotypic occupations and note whether or not they need to be sex-stereotyped.

BREAKING STEREOTYPES - WORKSHEET

Directions: In each box is listed a person or job that is often stereotyped. Think of how each is stereotyped; then write a description of the person using data as far from the usual stereotype as you can think of. See the first box for an example.

Athletic Star Female, 6'6" 180 lbs. Wears glasses Hobbies: fishing, dancing, writing, poetry, painting Married: She and her husband have 3 children	News Announcer
Car Mechanic	Telephone Operator
Lifeguard	Homemaker
Firefighter	Welder
Dentist	Secretary

"Double Jeopardy"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

D. Objective: Identify factors which influence various female and male career development patterns.

4. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

The intent of this activity is to raise awareness of the situation of women who face double discrimination of sex and race. Try to bring out the effects of double discrimination. If you perceive your audience to be all white, then ask questions such as, "How might experiences be different for members of other races?" and "Have any of you witnessed or experienced such differences?"

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Distribute copies of handout, "Racism/Sexism: An Analysis," and "Incidents for Discussion: A Worksheet" to all participants.

c. Allow time for all to complete worksheet.

d. Divide into groups of three to five participants; compare and discuss answers.

e. In large group, report and discuss the findings of small groups.

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Pencils
Handouts: "Racism/Sexism: An Analysis"
"Incidents for Discussion: A Worksheet"
"Sexism and Racism: One Battle to Fight" (Chisholm, 1972)
References: Terry (1974), Terry (1970), Hernandez (1974), Epstein (1973)

Outcome Criteria:

Participants will have identified "incidents," the stereotyped behavior which caused it, and participated in the small-group discussion.

*RACISM/SEXISM: AN ANALYSIS**

Definition of Racism

RACISM is:

Any attitude or institutional structure which subordinates a person or group because of race,
and/or
any assignment of roles in society on the basis of race,
and/or
exploitation of minority persons, individually or as a group by majority persons.

Racism can be:

Individual, cultural, or institutional
and/or
Intentional or unintentional

Definition of Sexism

SEXISM is:

Any attitude or institutional structure which subordinates a person or group because of their sex,
and/or
any assignment of roles in society on the basis of sex,
and/or
exploitation of females, individually or as a group, by males, or vice versa.

Sexism can be:

Individual, cultural, or institutional
and/or
Intentional or unintentional

Racism and Sexism

Exist wherever a culture is ethnocentric and/or gendercentric, power is not shared, resource distribution is inequitable, and institutions are closed and inflexible - all for the supposed benefit of one group. Can be intentional or unintentional.

Double Bind (Double Jeopardy)

The situation of minority women in the United States where they are discriminated against on the basis of both sex and race.

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*Summarized from an article by R. Terry, The white male club, Civil Rights Digest, 6(3), 1974.

INCIDENTS FOR DISCUSSION: A WORKSHEET

Instructions:

After reading the handout, "Racism/Sexism: An Analysis," write incidents from readings or personal knowledge illustrating each concept in the handout, using the following examples. (NOTE: You will be asked to share what you have written in small groups, but have the option of choosing what you want to disclose.)

1. Give an example of an attitude; for instance, "All good chefs are men," "Indians are lazy and always drunk."
2. Give an example of assignment of role; such as kindergarten teachers expected to be female, and all women expected to fulfill only nurturant roles.
3. Give an example of exploitation; such as the exploitation of Native Americans when Manhattan Island was purchased in exchange for some trinkets.
4. Give an example of individual stereotyping; such as the refusal of an employer to hire a woman with children, although it is not the policy of the organization.
5. Give an example of cultural stereotyping; such as the generally shared belief that Asian-American women make good traditional housewives or "really know how to wait on a man."
6. Give an example of institutional stereotyping; such as the refusal of certain labor unions to admit women into their membership or the prohibition by private clubs of minorities as members.
7. Give an example of intentional stereotyping;* such as the calling a black man "boy" or saying, "Black women are bitches."
8. Give an example of unintentional stereotyping;* such as "I'm going to lunch with the girls."
9. Now, give an example from your own personal experience of one incident when you were the victim of or a participant in any one of the eight forms of stereotyping described.
    a. Describe the incident:
    b. Identify both the style of stereotype (using one of the eight forms) and the specific stereotype(s) (race, sex, physically disabled, economic class, etc.).

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*What differentiates between an intentional vs. unintentional instance of stereotyping is whether or not the person doing it is conscious of her/his intentions.

*SEXISM AND RACISM: ONE BATTLE TO FIGHT**

by Congresswoman Shirley Chisholm

It is obvious to me that we black Americans can no longer look on our struggle for full participation in American society as one that is isolated from that of other second class groups. Discrimination against blacks because of the color of their skin is no more--or less--anathema to basic civil rights than is discrimination against groups because of their religion, creed, sex, or sexual orientation. When discrimination is at work, it is because those who hold power are creating petty and arbitrary barriers for the purpose of denying equal participation to those who, if allowed to compete freely within the system, would threaten the status of the power holders.

More Americans participating fully in our society, more Americans allowed to compete for top policy-making roles in government, business, and industry, would make it more difficult for the mediocre men--who have wrecked our economy, involved us in civil wars abroad, and divided us at home--to hold onto their power by limiting the corps of potential competitors.

ROLE POWER

The device used to limit competition is that of assigning different roles to the different groups in society. White males have assigned to themselves such roles as president of the United States, corporate executive, industrialist, doctor, lawyer, and university professor. They have assigned to white women such roles as housewife, secretary, PTA chairman, and schoolteacher. Black women can now be schoolteachers, too, but they are most prominently assigned to such domestic roles as maid, cook, waitress, and babysitter. Black men are thought to be good porters, bus drivers, and sanitation men.

These are roles that have been ingrained into the minds of all of us, and any attempt on the part of white women, black women, or black men to rise above their particular role is looked on with apprehension by the white males who form the establishment. All too often the potential for full intellectual development and goal realization on the part of ethnic minorities and women is suppressed by white males' denying these groups the appropriate job training and educational opportunity necessary to assume a role that white males consider to be their domain.

I do not mean to suggest that there is anything degrading about work as a domestic, a clerk, a teacher, or anything else that is honest and satisfying; hard work at any occupation can be fulfilling and rewarding. But I do object to assigning certain roles to particular groups on the basis of sex and color when there is no generic reason for doing so. And I resent the efforts of white males to limit competition for the more prestigious and higher paying occupations.

Blacks, Spanish-speaking Americans, and Indians have long objected to the exclusiveness of the establishment. Today women are voicing their objections too, and statistics tell us why. Among all employed American women, 82 percent are clerks, saleswomen, factory workers, farm workers, or in service occupations. Six percent are medical and health workers, college teachers, or other professional and technical workers. Just 5 percent are managers, officials, or proprietors. If women are, as the U.S. Department of Labor has concluded, more reliable on the job and less frequently absent from work than men, what is the reason for their preponderant employment at the lower level positions and pay scales? Quite simply, it is discrimination.

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*From: Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1972, 51, pp. 123-126. Permission to reprint granted by both Shirley Chisholm and Personnel and Guidance Journal.

Women are sick and tired of being told, "See how far you've come? You've come a long way, baby." If that's so, then why is it that of 10,000 civil service employees in jobs paying $26,000 a year or better only about 150 are women? Why is it that fewer than 1 percent of federal policy-making positions are held by women?

The truth of the matter is that the top policy-making positions in the American establishment remain in the hands of white males who are not responsive to the needs of the poor, of minorities, or of women. And we are not in a position to regulate their actions and inactions--their failure to control inflation and unemployment, their failure to respond to the call of consumers for better products at nonexorbitant costs--because regular citizens such as you and I have no power to control or replace them as long as they deny the great majority of Americans the opportunity to compete freely in our society.

Yet there is hope for oppressed groups--if we unite and challenge the forces that now hold the power in our country. This is an effort that requires these groups--minorities, women, consumers--to come together and demand representation in the high councils of the establishment, and it also requires that we forget about role playing and seek to allow persons to engage in work suited to their intellectual and physical abilities.

JOINING FORCES

Blacks must realize that there are other groups who face discrimination and who, for reasons of their own self-interest, are willing to join forces in breaking down petty and arbitrary barriers against fully productive careers within the mainstream of American life. This is why I have long spoken out in favor of coalition politics, and it is why I have been disturbed that some persons do not understand the wisdom of joint action.

Black women surely know the value of such action. We face discrimination based on both racism and sexism. And it is important for us to be involved in both black and women's liberation.

Critics of this position suggest that we should first become liberated as a people. I say there is no need to fight two different battles; we should fight both at the same time. There is an argument that women's lib is a white woman's thing and that the role to which white women have been assigned should not concern black women. Nothing, in my view, could be further from the truth, since the proponents of "black liberation only" envision that black women will someday play the same kind of role that white women now play: that of the American woman.

Cheryl Clark of the *New York Amsterdam News* has attempted to define the "American woman." She says, "A man comes along and chooses a woman he'll support in exchange for her having and raising kids, keeping house, cooking, shopping, being faithful, tryin' to be halfway attractive, and whatever else."

Such a role does not take into consideration either the needs or the talents of a woman, particularly the present-day black woman. When we consider the fact that 29 percent of black households are headed by women, we cannot expect these women to fit into this definition of the American woman. When we consider the fact that many other black and white women have to work in order to help their husbands with the bills, we cannot expect them to fit the definition either. When we honestly admit that some women are assertive and aggressive, we cannot expect these women to resign themselves to being housewives--not without their being frustrated in that capacity.

The women's movement seeks to present an alternative to the "American woman," one I feel is much more conducive to the peculiar nature and needs of the black woman.

I strongly take issue with those persons who say that it is time for black women to step back and let black men take the lead. I certainly do not object to black men taking the lead in our struggle for equal rights in America. Yet I believe that we should not place emphasis on black women stepping back; we should rather emphasize the need for black men to step ahead. We cannot afford to have any of our people stepping back!

Neither do I look on the struggle for equal rights as an all-black thing. Every American who believes in liberty and justice for all must join the struggle for equal rights for blacks and Indians, Puerto Ricans and Chicanos, and women. Progressive Americans should join in the struggle to end *all* forms of discrimination in America and to end the narrow-minded approach of assigning stereotypic roles to particular groups. Human beings cannot be assigned so easily, since we are unique in our individual abilities and characters. Liberation in America must therefore transcend ending discrimination against a particular race. It must entail ending discrimination because of sex, origin, and religion as well.

We must work to create a climate in which it will not be unusual or novel for a black or an Indian or a woman to run for a national office or advance to a high executive position. We must work to create a climate in which Americans are allowed to move up in the system solely on the basis of their intellect, perseverance, and physical ability.

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-L

I.D.5.

"Role Models Panel"*

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

D. Objective: Identify factors which influence various female and male career development patterns.

5. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Invite four to six women and men who pursue nontraditional occupations to participate in a panel discussion. The panel members should reflect the multi-racial diversity of our society. "The Joy of Choosing" videotape can be used with this strategy if time permits.

b. Workshop participants submit written questions for the panelists. Examples of topic areas are as follows:

1) How they entered their occupations.

2) What persons and other factors inhibited and facilitated their nontraditional occupational and career choices.

3) What aspects of their decisions to pursue nontraditional occupational and career patterns were most difficult.

4) How it feels to be in a field which is considered inappropriate for one's sex.

5) What further occupational and career goals they have.

c. Workshop leader moderates discussion involving panelists and workshop participants.

d. Summarize.

Alternative Strategy:

Films: Pursuits is available through the Women's Center, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN 55455 ($25.00 deposit is required; no rental fee charges). Film consists of a series of four interviews of women in nontraditional occupations: veterinarian, car mechanic, judge, and police officer.
Men's Lives is available from New Day Films, P.O. Box 315, Franklin Lakes, New Jersey 07417.
When I Grow Up is available from Motorola Corporation, 1309 E. Algonquin Road, Schaumburg, Illinois 60196.
"The Joy of Choosing" is described in strategy I.B.5.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

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*Adapted from: Birk, J. M., and Tanney, M. F. Career exploration for high school women: A model. College Park, Maryland: University of Maryland, 1973.

Resources Needed:

Materials: Index cards for questions; sheets of paper for evaluation. If alternative strategy is used, need film.

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will write a short essay discussing the effects which existing stereotypes have had on women and men who have pursued nontraditional occupations.

E SR-M
CD-M TL-L

I.D.6.

"Reviewing the Literature"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

D. Objective: Identify factors which influence various female and male career development patterns.

6. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

One of the questions we are asking in Project BORN FREE is, "What do we really know about career socialization and the ways attitudes about sex roles influence career decisions of women and men?" The BORN FREE review of literature should be read by the leader as preparation for using this activity. An overhead of the Kutner and Brogan (1976, p. 54) and Parsons, Frieze and Ruble (1976, p. 2) conceptual models presented in the Higher Education original review (Follet, Watt, and Hansen, 1977) can be useful.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Have participants read "Summary of Secondary Literature Review." Be sure to point out the limitations of the literature in this area, as well as the limitations of reading only summaries of the studies.

c. Findings on the following areas are reported as major areas related to career development at the secondary level:

   1) Self-Concept
   2) Sense of Agency - Locus of Control
   3) Achievement Motivation
   4) Career Information Processing
   5) Influencers
   6) Sex-Role Stereotyping
   7) Interventions

d. Suggested discussion questions are:

   1) How does each of these variables affect career development, socialization or decision making?
   2) How much can we say that we really know about these variables and their influence on career development in secondary education?
   3) What do Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) conclude in their major study of research on sex differences?
   4) In what ways does Block (1976) find that their conclusions are debatable?
   5) What kind of programs and activities are being created to reduce the barriers?

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/4 hours

Resources Needed:

Handouts: "Summary of Secondary Literature Review"
(in Section X of this packet)
"Myth, Reality, and Shades of Gray" (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974) (See strategy I.C.1.)
"Debatable Conclusions about Sex Differences" (Block 1976) (See strategy I.C.1.)
Reference: Johnson, Harper, Hatfield, Teeson, and Hansen (1977)
Kutner and Brogan (1976)
Parsons, Frieze, and Ruble (1976)
Pelcak (1977)
Follett, Watt, and Hansen (1977)

Outcome Criteria:

After reading and discussing the literature review, participants will be able to identify the major variables and their implications for career decision making.

"Physical Continuum"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL GAIN AN INITIAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACILITATING AND INHIBITING EFFECTS WHICH EXISTING STEREOTYPES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS HAVE ON CAREER CHOICES.

E. Objective: Recognize and take responsibility for personal attitudes and biases.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy asks participants to assess where they are in terms of their beliefs and their behaviors regarding sex roles. The activity can be an extremely powerful one for ending BORN FREE experiences with participants, providing a sense of closure for them. It could, with caution, be used at both the beginning and ending of a workshop or course to see whether or not people have changed their beliefs and/or behaviors as a result of their experience.

The activity is in two parts, first asking people to assess where they are in terms of their beliefs about sex roles and, second, asking them to assess where they are in terms of their behaviors related to sex roles. As a leader, it is important to clearly define the end points for the continuum for participants by giving examples, if necessary.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Describe an imaginary line which stretches from one corner of the room to the other and ask participants to place themselves on a point on the line in terms of their beliefs about sex roles. One end point could be described as "completely stereotyped" (i.e., People here believe in traditional sex roles for women and men). The other end point could be described as "completely non-stereotyped" (i.e., people here believe that women and men, regardless of race or class, should be free of sex roles in all areas of their life).

Then do the same for a continuum related to people's actual behaviors. One end point would be for people who see their behavior as completely sex-role stereotyped and the other end point as completely non-stereotyped. In most cases, people's behaviors will be lagging behind their beliefs.

Leader may wish to add the following to the above continua: Ask participants to stand on the line at the points where:

1) they were five years ago
2) they were before BORN FREE experiences
3) they are after BORN FREE experiences
4) they wish the world would be in the future

c. Form small groups and have people discuss why they stood and moved where they did. Each group should decide upon a recorder who will report to the large group.

d. Report outcomes of discussion to large group. During discussion that follows, try to focus on attitudes about career, sex-role stereotyping, and the implications of their attitudes for career options.

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 40 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: None

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will write an essay describing "what I believe" and "how I behave" regarding career-related sex bias.

Goal II

PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW LANGUAGE AND THE MEDIA FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

Objectives and Learning Strategies

A. Investigate and discuss the ways in which language and the media (e.g., television, radio, films, books, magazines, songs) reflect, create, and reinforce career-related sex-role stereotypes.

   1. Language and Sex-Role Stereotyping
   2. Personal Pronoun Problem
   3. You Are What You Say
   4. Collage: Men/Women at Work
   5. Media Messages
   6. What's Wrong with This Picture?
   7. Seeing Is Believing

"Language and Sex-Role Stereotyping"

II. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW LANGUAGE AND THE MEDIA FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

A. Objective: Investigate and discuss the ways in which language and the media (e.g., television, radio, films, books, magazines, songs) reflect, create, and reinforce career-related sex-role stereotypes.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity is designed to present participants with opportunities to read, write, and talk about the impact of language usage upon the maintenance or reduction of sex-role stereotyping.

This activity also is related to III.C.1., "Textbook Analysis of Sex-Role Stereotypes."

Instructions:

a. Participants should read Guidelines for Improving the Image of Women in Textbooks (attached). Then discuss briefly (in total group) the major points in the article.

   1) Which points were most striking?
   2) Which had you never considered before?
   3) Give additional examples of sex-role-stereotyped language after reading the examples on page 7.
   4) Did the article suggest to you any other examples of the inhibiting or facilitating influence of language upon career decisions?
   5) Give examples of how language can be both sex and race biased, e.g. "Geisha girl," "Black mammy," "lotus blossom," and "squaw."

b. Leader should read Scene One from "A Woman Is Not a Girl and Other Lessons in Corporate Speech." Then discuss (in total group) what concerns about language are represented in the example. Follow the same pattern for scenes two through five.

c. Pass out copies of "Language Worksheet." Have participants edit it according to the "Guidelines for Improving the Image of Women in Textbooks." They should list at least two changes they feel should be made and the reason for the change.

d. Summarize. Include a request that participants note additional examples of the influence of language on career choices as they read other materials, listen to people talk, watch TV, etc.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/2 hours

Resources Needed:

Handouts: Guidelines for Improving the Image of Women in Textbooks
(Scott, Foresman and Company, 1974)
"Language Worksheet"
Attached article: "A Woman Is Not a Girl and Other Lessons in Corporate Speech" (Hogan, 1974)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will bring in one outside example of sex bias in language.

GUIDELINES FOR IMPROVING THE IMAGE OF WOMEN IN TEXTBOOKS[1]

Sexism refers to all those attitudes and actions which demean or stereotype individuals or groups because of their sex. These guidelines focus specifically on the elimination of sexism as it relates to women in textbooks.

Whether accidentally or intentionally, women have frequently been treated as inferiors. Textbooks should treat women and men as equals. Textbooks are sexist if they omit the actions and achievements of women, if they demean women by using patronizing language, or if they show women or men only in stereotyped roles with less than the full range of human interests, traits, and capabilities. The actual role of sexism in society, past and present, should not be ignored; and, where appropriate, textbooks can discuss sexism as an important phenomenon without reflecting or reinforcing sexist bias.

GENERAL GUIDELINES FOR TEXT AND ILLUSTRATIONS

The Actions and Achievements of Women Should be Recognized.

The contributions of women to politics, the sciences, the arts, and other fields often considered exclusively masculine should be presented and explored.

The works of female authors are too often omitted from anthologies. When compiling or revising such texts, editors should actively search for material written by women.

Females should be included as often as males in math problems, spelling and vocabulary sentences, discussion questions, test items, and other exercises. Very often the overall tone of a book is sexist because males are more frequently mentioned in exercises or because the exercises present only stereotypes.

Although many factors determine the content of textbooks--authors, permissions, space, time, money, the market, etc.--these limitations should not be used to excuse bias, prejudice, or insensitivity.

Women and Girls Should Be Given the Same Respect as Men and Boys.

Writers, editors, designers, and illustrators should make sure that both male and female readers feel that a publication is directed to them.

Material should be scrutinized carefully in the context of the book as a whole to ensure that contempt for women as a group is not inadvertently being fostered. For example, writers should take care that material about a woman who is stupid, financially inept, a bad driver, a shrewish mother-in-law, a blind follower of male initiative, etc. does not present these qualities as typical of women as a group. Girls and women should not be

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1. From: Guidelines for Improving the Image of Women in Textbooks, 1974, pp. 1-11. © 1974 Scott, Foresman and Company. Reprinted with permission.

shown as more fearful of danger, mice, snakes, and insects than boys and men are in similar situations.

Women and girls should nto be shown as unworthy people when they do not conform to male standards. Males should not be viewed as having a monopoly on ability to judge what is interesting or worthwhile.

Although women are a majority of the American population, in many ways their history has been that of a minority group. Because of past discrimination, the same care must be taken in portraying women as in portraying blacks, Puerto Ricans, Chicanos, American Indians, and other minorities.

Abilities, Traits, Interests, and Activities Should Not Be Assigned on the Basis of Male or Female Stereotypes.

One reason often cited for the overwhelming percentage of selections by or about males in literature and language arts texts is that boys will read only stories about boys, whereas girls will read anything. If females were not depicted as passive, lackluster, sweet but senseless drudges, both boys and girls would find them more interesting. Few boys have rejected *Alice in Wonderland* or *The Wizard of Oz* because the main characters are girls.

Females as well as males possess courage, physical strength, mechanical skills, and the ability to think logically. Males as well as females can be fearful, weak, mechanically inept, and illogical. Females can be rude, intractable, active, or messy. Males can be polite, cooperative, inactive, or neat. Because such characteristics are shared by males and females in reality, textbooks that classify them as "masculine" or "feminine" are misrepresenting reality.

Both men and women should be shown cooking, cleaning, making household repairs, doing laundry, washing the car, and taking care of children. Both men and women should be shown making decisions; participating in sports; writing poetry; working in factories, stores, and offices; playing musical instruments; practicing medicine and law; serving on boards of directors; and making scientific discoveries. However, care must be taken to avoid replacing old stereotypes with new ones. Showing some women in traditional roles, such as housewife or nurse, it not sexist if women are shown in other roles as well.

Children often conform to the standards of their peers because they fear ridicule. If only boys are encouraged to be active and competitive, girls with these inclinations may learn to stifle them. If only girls are encouraged to express openly such emotions as fear, sorrow, and affection, boys may feel reluctant to express these emotions.

Both men and women have much to gain from the elimination of stereotypes. Textbooks which avoid male and female stereotyping will more accurately represent reality, encourage tolerance for individual differences, and allow more freedom for children to discover and express their needs, interests, and abilities.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR AVOIDING SEXIST LANGUAGE

Dealing with the Omission of Women

Terms and titles which use *man* to represent humanity have the effect of excluding women from participation in various human activities. It is usually easy to find some other way of expressing the idea.

EXAMPLES OF SEXIST LANGUAGE:	POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVES:
early man	early humans, early men and women
Neanderthal man	Neanderthals, Neanderthal men and women
When man invented the wheel...	When the wheel was invented... When people invented the wheel...
History of the Black Man in America	*History of Black People in America*
Man and His World	*World History*

Occupational terms often ignore the existence of women workers. When a group includes both women and men, use a term or phrase that reflects the actual composition of the group.

EXAMPLES OF SEXIST LANGUAGE:	POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVES:
businessmen	businessmen and women, business leaders, operators of small businesses, entrepreneurs, merchants, industrialists[1]
congressmen	members of Congress, congressmen and women
mailmen	letter carriers
repairmen	people who repair..., repairers

A patronizing tone toward women, created by euphemisms, diminutive suffixes, and lack of parallelism, must be avoided. References to a woman's appearance, marital status, and family should not be made unless these items would be noteworthy in referring to a man in the same context.

EXAMPLES OF SEXIST LANGUAGE:	POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVES:
the fair sex, the weaker sex	women
the girls in the office	the women in the office

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1. Since the term *businessman* is often used loosely, it may be helpful to describe the person or persons in more precise occupational terms.

sculptress, suffragette	sculptor, suffragist
the ladies and the men	the women and the men, the ladies and the gentlemen
men (and women)	men and women
man and wife	husband and wife, man and woman, the couple
The works of Hemingway, Steinbeck, and Miss Buck were widely read.	The works of Hemingway, Steinbeck, and Buck were widely read.
The poetic styles of Emily Dickinson and E.E. Cummings are quite different. Emily's style is spare and simple, while Cummings'...	The poetic styles of Emily Dickinson and E.E. Cummings are quite different. Dickinson's style is spare and simple, while Cummings'...
Galileo was the astronomer who discovered the moons of Jupiter. Marie Curie was the beautiful chemist who discovered radium.	Galileo was the astronomer who discovered the moons of Jupiter. Marie Curie was the chemist who discovered radium. Galileo was the handsome astronomer who discovered the moons of Jupiter. Marie Curie was the beautiful chemist who discovered radium.
The candidates were Bryan K. Wilson, president of American Electronics, Inc., and Florence Greenwood, a pert, blonde grandmother of five.	The candidates were Bryan K. Wilson, president of American Electronics, Inc., and Florence Greenwood, credit manager for Bloominghill's department store. The candidates were Bryan K. Wilson, silver-haired father of three, and Florence Greenwood, a pert, blonde grandmother of five.

Eliminating Sex-Role Stereotypes

Editors and authors should be cautious when they assign certain activities or roles to people or otherwise differentiate between people purely on the basis of sex. Many such assumptions misrepresent reality and ignore the actual contributions of both sexes to the activity or role. This is not to say that girls should never be pictured playing with dolls or that boys should never be pictured playing with baseballs, but that a more varied picture is also a more realistic one.

EXAMPLES OF SEXIST LANGUAGE:	POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVES:
In New England, the typical farm was so small that the owner and his sons could take care of it by themselves.	In New England, the typical farm was so small that the family members could take care of it by themselves.
Children had once learned about life by listening to aunts, uncles, grandparents, and the wise men of their town or neighborhood.	Children had once learned about life by listening to aunts, uncles, grandparents, and the wise people of their town or neighborhood.
Write a paragraph about what you expect to do when you are old enough to have Mr. or Mrs. before your name.	Write a paragraph about what you would like to do when you grow up.
Personal symbols are small, personal objects or possessions that have particular associations for their owners. To a woman, for example, a pressed flower might recall a dance she attended many years ago. A boy might keep a cracked baseball bat because it reminds him of the time he hit the winning home run..	Personal symbols are small, personal objects or possessions that have particular associations for their owners. To a father, for example, an old toy truck might serve as a reminder of a boy who has grown up. A girl might keep a broken tennis racket because it reminds her of a hard-won championship.
	Personal symbols.... To a parent, for example, an old puppet might serve as a reminder of a girl who has grown up. A boy might keep a Halloween costume as a souvenir from his childhood.

When creating spelling, math, and other exercises using fictitious people, authors and editors should make sure that stereotypes are not perpetuated.

EXAMPLES OF SEXIST LANGUAGE:	POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVES:
All listened *patiently* to the ladies chatter.	All listened *patiently* while the women talked.
The *ex-stenographer* got a job as as a stewardess with an airline.	The *ex-stenographer* got a degree in accounting.

Words like *spokesperson* and *chairperson*, introduced into the language to prevent the omission of women, should not be applied to women only. When *-person* is used, it refers to either a man or a woman.

EXAMPLE OF SEXIST LANGUAGE:	POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVE:
Helen Lopez will be the spokesperson for the administration, and Michael Johnson will be the spokesman for the union.	Helen Lopez will be the spokesperson for the administration, and Michael Johnson will be the spokesperson for the union.

Males or females are often chosen to represent "typical" examples, thereby excluding one of the sexes from the reader's thoughts. There are many ways to avoid such stereotyping.

EXAMPLES OF SEXIST LANGUAGE:	POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVES:
the common man, the man on the street	ordinary people
the man who pays a property tax	the person who pays a property tax
the typical American...he	typical Americans...they
the teacher...she	the teacher...he or she, teachers...they
the housewife who complains about higher prices	the consumer (homemaker) who complains about higher prices

Wherever possible avoid the use of "he-him" referents. It is often preferable to use a plural sentence with plural pronouns; or substitute *he or she, her or him, him/her*, or a synonym for the noun. It is becoming increasingly common in all but formal usage to mix singular nouns with plural pronouns, as in the sentence "Ed and Sue were present, but neither expressed their views." Often pronouns that needlessly refer to sex can be replaced: "Ed and Sue were present, but neither expressed any views."

Changing Language that Demeans Women

Writers often judge women's achievements by standards different from those by which they judge men's. This is necessary in some professional sports where the same standards do not apply. However, in other areas one's sex does not affect one's competence. Therefore, writers should avoid constructions that place women in a special class. Words like *girl, young woman, woman, lady,* and *gal* often subtly denigrate women's achievements.

They should be used only when their counterparts *boy, young man, man, gentleman,* and *guy* would be appropriate in referring to a male.

EXAMPLES OF SEXIST LANGUAGE:	POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVES:
Andrew Wyeth is a fine painter, and Georgia O'Keeffe is a fine woman painter.	Andrew Wyeth and Georgia O'Keeffe are fine painters.
Marie Curie did what few people--men or women--could do.	Marie Curie did what few people could do.
Mary Wells Lawrence is a highly successful lady advertising executive.	Mary Wells Lawrence is a highly successful advertising executive.

Terms such as *woman doctor* or *female executive* are generally unacceptable. Where it is desirable to refer to a person's sex, references should be made with the aid of feminine pronouns: "The doctor walked into the room and put her bag on a chair next to the patient's bed." In some cases, however, it is necessary to refer directly to a person's sex, as in the sentence: "The works of female authors are too often omitted from anthologies."

Avoid constructions implying that women, because they are women, are always dependent on male initiative.

EXAMPLES OF SEXIST LANGUAGE:	POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVES:
The ancient Egyptians allowed women considerable control over property.*	Women in ancient Egypt had considerable control over property. Men in ancient Egypt allowed women considerable control over property.**
A slave could not claim his wife or children as his own because the laws did not recognize slave marriages.*	Slaves tried to maintain family relationships, but the laws did not recognize slave marriages.
the farmer and his wife*	a farm couple
a homeowner and his family*	homeowners and their children

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* These examples do not make sense inasmuch as terms like *ancient Egyptians, slave, farmer, homeowner* include women.

** This sentence would be correct only if the author could prove that man in ancient Egypt could choose to grant or deny property rights to women.

Care must be taken to avoid sexist assumptions and stereotypes in teachers' manuals and other teacher aids.

EXAMPLES OF SEXIST LANGUAGE:	POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVES:
Hammers and scissors are good eye-hand coordinators. Hitting the nail instead of the thumb is a triumph for the boys. Cutting out paper dolls and their garments is good for the girls.	Hammers and scissors are good eye-hand coordinators. For a child, hitting the nail instead of the thumb or cutting out a recognizable shape is a triumph.
The boys like action stories, and both boys and girls like animation and comedy. Girls will read stories that boys like, but the boys will not enjoy "girlish" stories.	Most children like action, animation, and comedy in stories. Some children, however, will enjoy lighter or more sentimental types of reading materials.

Revising Sexist Manuscripts

A manuscript may contain so many instances of sexist language that a complete revision is necessary. Following are two such selections along with possible revisions.

SEXIST PASSAGES:	SUGGESTED REVISIONS:
Have one member of the class walk onstage into an environment of his choosing (remembering the difference between showing and doing, be sure he does not *show* you where he is, but rather *does* what he would normally do in that place). When you are sure where he is, join him in the environment. As each member of the class discovers where he is, they in turn may join him onstage.	Imagine yourself in a particular situation. Without telling the class where you are, walk onstage into this environment. Remember the difference between showing and doing and *do* what would normally be done in the place you have chosen. As other class members recognize your environment, they may join you onstage, becoming a part of the same situation.
Born in Manchester, England, in 1922, the daughter of a greengrocer, Mary Barrington spent a typical girlhood doing chores around the house and reading the works of female authors such as Jane Austen and Emily Brontë. Although she was considered attractive by men and had several suitors, she rejected the joys of marriage in order to pursue a literary career. Her sharp, masculine mind attracted the attention of instructors at	Born in Manchester, England, in 1922, the daughter of middle-class parents, Mary Barrington spent a good deal of her childhood reading the works of well-known English authors such as Jane Austen and Emily Brontë. She was intent on pursuing a literary career, and her sharp mind attracted the attention of instructors at Queen's College. In her final year, she won the coveted Queen's Prize for Literature. By 1946, Barrington had

Queen's College, where she won the coveted Queen's Prize for Literature in her final year. By 1946 Miss Barrington had become a nationally known authoress, largely due to her best-selling novel *Crassington*, which dealt with man's alienation --a theme that recurred in the eight novels that followed. Now semi-retired, she can occasionally be seen on the outskirts of Manchester, sporting the good looks and trim figure that belie her age.

become a nationally known author, largely due to her best-selling novel *Crassington*, which dealt with human alienation--a theme that recurred in the eight novels that followed. Now semiretired, she can occasionally be seen on the outskirts of Manchester, where she leads an active life and enjoys good health.

Dealing with Unavoidable Sexism

If, after careful consideration, an author or editor finds it desirable to use selections that contain sexist attitudes, these attitudes should be discussed in accompanying descriptive material or discussion questions. For example, the following questions appeared in one text after the story "The Journal of a Wife-Beater":

1. The Latins have a word for it: *machismo*, that flaunting of masculinity that is expected in certain male-dominated societies. To what degree does the Vasili who begins this journal seem to accept this concept of male superiority?

2. Every time Nitsa hits her husband, she states calmly, "I owed you one...." Is she, as she claims, simply repaying a debt?

3. Try your hand at writing a journal Nitsa might have kept for the days covered in the story.

LANGUAGE WORKSHEET

Why is vocational education necessary? It is the bridge between a man and his work. Millions of people need this education in order to earn a living. Every man wants to provide for his family with honor and dignity and to be counted as an individual. Providing for an individual's employability as he leaves school and throughout his work life is one of the major goals of vocational education. Vocational education looks at a man as a part of society and as an individual, and never before has attention to the individual as a person been so imperative.

A WOMAN IS NOT A GIRL AND OTHER LESSONS IN CORPORATE SPEECH[1]

by Patricia Hogan

If you listen carefully to businessmen's conversations, you can learn much about their attitudes toward women.

SCENE ONE: A planning meeting. Ten men are seated around a large, circular conference table. One of the men leading the meeting has forgotten to bring a crucial document. Discovering this, he says, "I'll have my girl bring it right over." Five minutes later, a woman who appears to be in her early forties knocks on the door, excuses herself for the interruption, and hands the man the document.

SCENE TWO: Mr. Z calls Sally Jones, one of the firm's account executives, into his office to congratulate her on landing an account the company has been pursuing for years.

"Sally, you did a first-rate job on that Mercer account," he says. "You really surprised everyone. Don't get me wrong--it's not that we didn't think you could do the job. It's just . . . well, how did you manage to get old Mercer to sign? Never mind, we won't go into that," he says with a wink.

Later, Mr. Z sees Ms. Jones in the executive dining room, approaches her table, and again congratulates her. "Bet you guys don't know what a terrific little saleswoman we have here," he says to the men lunching with Ms. Jones.

By day's end, Mr. Z has commended Ms. Jones five times on her achievement.

SCENE THREE: Six men and a lone woman attend a luncheon. The table conversation turns to capital gains, product diversification, and a new Management Information System (MIS) that will facilitate financial reporting for the large multinational corporation for which they work.

Halfway through lunch, one of the men leans over and whispers to the woman, "Are we boring you?"

SCENE FOUR: A group of executives meet to discuss a merger. During the course of the discussion, one of the male vice-presidents says, "This is going to be a bitch to pull off." He immediately turns to the two women present and apologizes for the five-letter word.

SCENE FIVE: A male manager has recently transferred to head a new department. On the third day in his new assignment, he emerges from his office and

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1. From: Business and Society Review, Summer 1975, pp. 34-38. Reprinted by permission.

2. Patricia Hogan is manager of internal communications for the Operating Group, First National City Bank.

asks a female standing near the Xerox machine to make four copies of a report and to get him a cup of coffee. The woman introduces herself; she is one of the production managers who report to him.

As women advance in the business world, men are often confronted with situations like those above--situations which call for new forms of behavior and a new awareness of and effort to overcome the sexism inherent in daily conversations.

The men in these five situations have violated certain basic communications rules. In the first instance, the man has referred to a mature female as a girl. The term *girl* implies a certain dependency associated with children. The word is as denigrating when applied to a woman as the word *boy* is when applied to a man. Secondly, the businessman identified the woman by her sex and not by her function (in this case, secretary) as would have been appropriate in this situation. Thirdly, the man's use of the word *my* indicates that he thinks of the secretary as personal property rather than as an employee of the company.

In the second example, Mr. Z's repeated and overblown praise belies any conviction that women are competent. His comments demonstrate his astonishment at Ms. Jones's achievement. In addition, he tries to attribute her success to feminine wiles or to sexual favors granted to "old Mercer." Mr. Z also patronizes Ms. Jones by describing her as a "terrific *little* saleswoman."

In the third case, the man's question is based on the assumption that women are not interested in business matters. If he did not accept the stereotype of woman as primarily concerned with domestic and certain other interests, he would not ask the question. The very phrasing of the question ("Are we boring you?") reveals that he views the men as controlling the conversation and the woman as a passive participant. She is seen as a listener and not as an equal partner in the luncheon discussion.

In the fourth instance, the vice-president apologizes not because he thinks he has offended an individual, but because he has been conditioned to believe that certain forms of language are not used in the presence of women. In this particular case, the man apologized despite the fact that one of the women had called the president of the company being acquired a "fucking madman" during the course of the meeting, thus clearly indicating that she took no exception to such language.

The manager in the fifth illustration obviously assigns women to certain roles within the business world. He finds it natural to assume that a woman standing near a Xerox machine is either a secretary or a clerk, and his remarks flow from that assumption.

WORDS OFTEN EXCLUDE WOMEN

Businessmen do no better when it comes to the written word, as an examination of internal memoranda and other documents will show. Indeed, business has created and uses an extensive terminology that excludes women. Some of its more familiar phrases include manpower planning, man-hours, workman's compensation, the right man for the job, etc.

It can, of course, be argued that these terms are meant generically and therefore include women. However, the effect is frequently the opposite. To most executives, *manpower planning* means plotting the future careers of the key men in the organization or matching key men with key positions. Invariably, the generic evokes a masculine image, especially when used in a business environment, which has long been a male preserve.

Most business terminology can be easily changed without resorting to awkward or strained language. For example, manpower planning becomes *staff resources planning*. Workman's compensation becomes *worker's compensation*. Right man for the job becomes *right person for the job*.

Many companies already have issued guidelines to help executives achieve nonsexist writing. (The McGraw-Hill "Guidelines for Equal Treatment of the Sexes" is perhaps the most notable and comprehensive of these. Although aimed at authors of textbooks, the McGraw-Hill guidelines are valuable for everyone.)

De-sexing the spoken and written language, however, requires more than the invention and utilization of nonsexist words and phrases. Behavior modification and attitudinal change are required. And because language is the externalization of our thought processes, it is our thinking about women that must change. Women must no longer be perceived as inherently bound to play limited roles in society. Sexist stereotypes, such as the indecisive female executive, must be discarded.

Businesswomen must be seen as the equals--for better or for worse--of businessmen: competent, aggressive, ambitious, decisive individuals. They must be viewed as people serious about their careers. As effective managers. Only when we think of females in this way will we be able to approach communicating with them in the proper manner.

Compared with the spoken word, de-sexing the written word should prove easy, because people tend to think more carefully about what they commit to print. We take the time to revise and refine our words.

Conversations are more spontaneous, therefore more apt to show people's biases. Also, people sometimes play power games on the conversational field. Conversations can be used either consciously or subconsciously to "put a woman in her place"--to make her submissive. They can be used, as in the Mr.Z-Ms. Jones example, to make a woman doubt her own abilities. They can be used to draw inordinate attention to a woman (causing embarrassment or making an already uncomfortable situation more uncomfortable), as in the case of the apologetic male vice-president who feels compelled to excuse himself for his language. The message he has sent via his apology is that women are a special breed of people who must be protected from vulgar language. (The corollary

(continued on page 208)

TIPS ON AVOIDING SEXIST LANGUAGE:

EXCERPTS FROM MCGRAW-HILL BOOK COMPANY GUIDELINES FOR EQUAL TREATMENT OF THE SEXES

The word sexism was coined, by analogy to racism, to denote discrimination based on gender. In its original sense, sexism referred to prejudice against the female sex. In a broader sense, the term now indicates any arbitrary stereotyping of males and females on the basis of their gender.

Men and women should be treated primarily as people, and not primarily as members of opposite sexes. Their shared humanity of common attributes should be stressed--not their gender difference. Neither sex should be stereotyped or arbitrarily assigned to a leading or secondary role.

Women and men should be treated with the same respect, dignity, and seriousness. Neither should be trivialized or stereotyped. In descriptions of women, a patronizing or girl-watching tone should be avoided, as should sexual innuendoes, jokes, and puns.

No	Yes
the fair sex; the weaker sex	women
the distaff side	the female side or line
the girls or the ladies (when adult females are meant)	the women
girl, as in: I'll have my girl check that.	I'll have my secretary (or my assistant) check that. (Or use the person's name.)
lady used as a modifier, as in lady lawyer	lawyer (A woman may be identified simply through the choice of pronouns, as in: The lawyer made her summation to the jury. Try to avoid gender modifiers altogether. When you *must* modify, use woman or female, as in: a course on women writers, or the airline's first female pilot.)
the little woman; the better half; the ball and chain	wife
female-gender word forms, such as authoress, poetess, Jewess	author, poet, Jew

(continued)

female-gender or diminutive word forms, such as suffragette, usherette, aviatrix	suffragist, usher, aviator (or pilot)
libber (a put-down)	feminist; liberationist
sweet young thing	young woman; girl
housewife	homemaker for a person who works at home, or rephrase with a more precise or more inclusive term

In references to humanity at large, language should operate to include women and girls. Terms that tend to exclude females should be avoided whenever possible.

(A) The word man has long been used not only to denote a person of male gender, but also generically to denote humanity at large. To many people today, however, the word man has become so closely associated with the first meaning (a male human being) that they consider it no longer broad enough to be applied to any person or to human beings as a whole. In deference to this position, alternative expressions should be used in place of man (or derivative constructions used generically to signify humanity at large) whenever such substitutions can be made without producing an awkward or artificial construction. In cases where man-words must be used, special efforts should be made to ensure that pictures and other devices make explicit that such references include women.

Here are some possible substitutions for man-words:

No	Yes
mankind	humanity, human beings, human race, people
primitive man	primitive people or peoples; primitive human beings; primitive men and women
man's achievements	human achievements
If a man drove 50 miles at 60 mph...	If a person (or driver) drove 50 miles at 60 mph...
the best man for the job	the best person (or candidate) for the job
manmade	artificial; synthetic, manufactured; constructed; of human origin

(continued)

manpower	human power; human energy; workers; workforce
grow to manhood	grow to adulthood; grow to manhood or womanhood

(B) The English language lacks a generic singular pronoun signifying "he or she," and therefore it has been customary and gramatically sanctioned to use masculine pronouns in expressions such as "one... he," "anyone...he," and "each child opens his book." Nevertheless, avoid when possible the pronouns he, him, and his in reference to the hypothetical person or humanity in general.

Various alternatives may be considered:

(1) Reword to eliminate unnecessary gender pronouns.

No	Yes
The average American drinks his coffee black.	The average American drinks black coffee.

(2) Recast into the plural. (Most Americans drink their coffee black.)

(3) Replace the masculine pronoun with one, you, he or she, her or his, as appropriate. (Use he or she and its variations sparingly to avoid clumsiness.)

(4) Alternate male and female expressions and examples.

No	Yes
I've often heard supervisors say, "He's not the right man for the job," or "He lacks the qualifications for success."	I've often heard supervisors say, "She's not the right person for the job," or "He lacks the qualifications for success."

(5) To avoid severe problems of repetition or inept wording, it may sometimes be best to use the generic he freely, but to add, in the preface and as often as necessary in the text, emphatic statements to the effect that the masculine pronouns are being used for succinctness and are intended to refer to both females and males.

(continued)

(C) Occupational terms ending in man should be replaced whenever possible by terms that can include members of either sex unless they refer to a particular person.

No	Yes
congressman	member of Congress; representative (but Congressman Koch and Congresswoman Holtzman)
businessman	business executive; business manager
fireman	firefighter
mailman	mail carrier; letter carrier
salesman	sales representative; salesperson; sales clerk
insurance man	insurance agent
statesman	leader; public servant
chairman	the person presiding at (or chairing) a meeting; the presiding officer; the chair; head; leader; coordinator; moderator
cameraman	camera operator
foreman	supervisor

(D) Language that assumes all readers are male should be avoided.

No	Yes
you and your wife	you and your spouse
when you shave in the morning	when you brush your teeth (or wash up) in the morning

Insofar as possible, job titles should be nonsexist. Different nomenclature should not be used for the same job depending on whether it is held by a male or by a female. (See also paragraph (C) for additional examples of words ending in man.)

(continued)

No	Yes
steward or purser or stewardess	flight attendant
policeman and policewoman	police officer
maid and houseboy	house or office cleaner; servant

Unnecessary reference to or emphasis on a woman's marital status should be avoided. Whether married or not, a woman may be referred to by the name by which she chooses to be known, whether her name is her original name or her married name.

Males should not always be first in order of mention. Instead, alternate the order, sometimes using: women and men, gentlemen and ladies, she or he, her or his.

being, of course, that they must be protected from the harsh realities of the business world and therefore denied the same opportunity for advancement as men have.) He has also called attention to the fact that, as he perceives it, two women are now intruding on the meeting being held by the male executives.

One of the chief mistakes made in everyday conversations is to regard people as the representatives of a group rather than as individuals. The apologetic vice-president in example number four did not consider the people to whom he spoke as *individuals*. If he had, he might have apologized to a man present who found the language being used offensive. If the manager in the fifth example thought in terms of an individual rather than a class of people, he would have taken the time to find the woman's position before asking her to make copies of his report and fetch coffee.

Nonsexist speaking habits can be acquired only by redirecting thinking patterns, discarding all the old assumptions and learning to interact on a one-to-one basis.

"Personal Pronoun Problem"

II. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW LANGUAGE AND THE MEDIA FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

A. Objective: Investigate and discuss the ways in which language and the media (e.g., television, radio, films, books, magazines, songs) reflect, create, and reinforce career-related sex-role stereotypes.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Prior to workshop have participants review materials from their institutions in preparation for activity under c. below.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Have participants practice rewriting sentences to eliminate sex- and race-biased language and share in large group. Examples should come from materials that participants would actually use in their own positions: math problems, an orientation packet, college bulletin, a memo from the principal, syllabi, etc.

Example:

Old: Each new freshman is encouraged to make an appointment with his advisor upon arrival at the school.

New: Each new student is encouraged to make an appointment with the assigned advisor upon arrival at the school.

c. Share ideas with other participants.

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes in workshop

Resources Needed:

Materials: Printed materials from participant's institution.
Handouts: Guidelines for Improving the Image of Women in Textbooks (Scott, Foresman and Company, 1974) (See strategy II.A.1.)
"Pondering the Personal Pronoun Problem" (Middleton, 1977)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will cite two examples of how they could change sex- and race-biased language in their institution's materials.

LIGHT REFRACTIONS:
PONDERING THE PERSONAL PRONOUN PROBLEM[1]

by Thomas H. Middleton

The first time I saw *MS* in print, it was the name of a small literary magazine; it was pronounced "em ess," and it stood for *manuscript.* I remember thinking that it wasn't a good title.

Today, *Ms.* is the name of another magazine; it's pronounced "mizz," it stands for *liberated woman,* and it is a very good title, as well as a very good magazine.

A few years ago, when the problem of finding a word to substitute for *Miss* and *Mrs.* had not yet been solved, I was hoping that almost anything but *Ms.* would be adopted. I didn't like the look of "Ms.," and, as far as I knew, "Miz" up to that time was just a folksy way of saying "Mrs." In fact, I remember a character Bob and Ray invented whose name was something like Miz Pringle: "I'm Miz Pringle." "Yes, Mrs. Pringle." "No, not *Mrs.--Miz.* My name is *Miz. Miss* Miz Pringle."

Ms. did emerge as the new title, of course--its establishment as a feminist title secured by its use as the title of our leading feminist magazine. I'm quite reconciled to it.

I think most of us knew that there had to be a new word. It always seemed to me unfair that women were designated "married" or "single" by *Mrs.* and *Miss,* whereas men had their marital status concealed by the all-purpose *Mr.* It seemed to me that *Mrs.* and *Miss* were a bit like an invasion of privacy.

Now that *Ms.* has made it, we're going to have to settle the problem of the masculine pronoun's taking charge when the gender is undetermined, as in "Each member should supply *his* own utensils." Today, a great many people are laboriously conscientious in saying things like "his or her own utensils" or "his/her own utensils." In the past few years, I've received dozens of suggestions for new pronouns to cover both genders. The most recent was from Thomas S. Jackson, a Washington, D.C., lawyer, who says that the use of "him or her," "he or she," and so on, "is both awkward and wasteful." He suggests some new pronouns:

"Suppose we were to use the word *shis* in lieu of 'his or hers'...*shem* for 'him or her'...and *sheme* where we would now use 'he or she'? Consider, from a hypothetical bylaw:

"As of Now: 'In the event of the absence, death, or incapacity of the President, his or her duties shall be performed by the Vice-President; and all of the powers...shall devolve upon him or her, as the case may be....'

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[1] From: Saturday Review of Literature, March 5, 1977, p. 59. © Saturday Review, 1977. All rights reserved.

"New Words: 'In the event of the absence, death, or incapacity of the President, shis duties shall be performed by the Vice-President, and all of the powers...shall devolve upon shem....'"

I agree with Mr. Jackson that "he or she" is awkward. "Him/her" is grotesque. But I hope *shis, shem,* and so on won't catch on. I've read suggestions for *heshe, hisher, himmer,* and several other neologisms, and I don't like any of them.

The fact is that we already have a perfectly good word. All we have to do is relax our prejudice against it. The word is *they*. "Each member should supply their own utensils." "In the event of the absence, death, or incapacity of the President, their duties shall..."

It pings a rather sour note on the educated ear, but it doesn't have to, and to my mind, it beats all the *himmers* and *heshes* and *shems*.

It's worth noting that *they* has fairly good credentials already. The *Oxford English Dictionary* says that *they* is "Often used in reference to a single noun made universal by *every, any, no,* etc., or applicable to one of either sex (= 'he or she')." The *O.E.D.* then gives instances of this use of *they* from Fielding, Ruskin, Bagehot, and several other reputable types.

I'm conservative enough to have stuck with the conventional *he*, *him,* and *his* so far, eschewing *he or she, him or her, he/she, him/her, himmer, shis,* and all the rest, including *they* and *them*; but as I've used *he, him* and *his,* I've found myself feeling increasingly sexist. So I hereby resolve to try to use *they, them* and *their* in defiance of traditional grammar--in the hope of making a start toward drowning out *shis, hisher, himmer,* and *heshe*--confident that I'm asking for a deluge of letters from outraged grammarians.

When everybody gets out their poison pens, I'll try to withstand their wrath.

There. That wasn't so bad, was it?

"You Are What You Say"

II. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW LANGUAGE AND THE MEDIA FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

A. Objective: Investigate and discuss the ways in which language and the media (e.g., television, radio, films, books, magazines, songs) reflect, create, and reinforce career-related sex-role stereotypes.

3. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Leader will summarize portions of Lakoff and Graham articles for the entire group.

c. Have participants share impressions of the articles in the entire group.

d. Have participants break into small groups and talk about the part language has played in their career development and certain words/phrases they like/do not like to hear/use.

e. Discuss the following: Can language be both sexist and racist (e.g., Geisha girl, Black mammy)? How would this affect career development?

f. Summarize findings in large group.

Minimum Time Required: 40 minutes

Resources Needed:

Attached articles: "You Are What You Say" (Lakoff, 1974)
"How to Make Trouble: The Making of a Nonsexist Dictionary" (Graham, 1973)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will discuss the part language plays in career development.

YOU ARE WHAT YOU SAY[1]

by Robin Lakoff

"Women's language" is that pleasant (dainty?), euphemistic, never-aggressive way of talking we learned as little girls. Cultural bias was built into the language we were allowed to speak, the subjects we were allowed to speak about, and the ways we were spoken of. Having learned our linguistic lesson well, we go out in the world, only to discover that we are communicative cripples--damned if we do, and damned if we don't.

If we refuse to talk "like a lady," we are ridiculed and criticized for being unfeminine. ("She thinks like a man" is, at best, a left-handed compliment.) If we do learn all the fuzzy-headed, unassertive language of our sex, we are ridiculed for being unable to think clearly, unable to take part in a serious discussion, and therefore unfit to hold a position of power.

It doesn't take much of this for a woman to begin feeling she deserves such treatment because of inadequacies in her own intelligence and education.

"Women's language" shows up in all levels of English. For example, women are encouraged and allowed to make far more precise discriminations in naming colors than men do. Words like *mauve, beige, ecru, aquamarine, lavender,* and so on, are unremarkable in a woman's active vocabulary, but largely absent from that of most men. I know of no evidence suggesting that women actually *see* a wider range of colors than men do. It is simply that fine discriminations of this sort are relevant to women's vocabularies, but not to men's; to men, who control most of the interesting affairs of the world, such distinctions are trivial--irrelevant.

In the area of syntax, we find similar gender-related peculiarities of speech. There is one construction, in particular, that women use conversationally far more than men: the tag-question. A tag is midway between an outright statement and a yes-no question; it is less assertive than the former, but more confident than the latter.

A *flat statement* indicates confidence in the speaker's knowledge and is fairly certain to be believed; a *question* indicates a lack of knowledge on some point and implies that the gap in the speaker's knowledge can and will be remedied by an answer. For example, if, at a Little League game, I have had my glasses off, I can legitimately ask someone else: "Was the player out at third?" A *tag question*, being intermediate between statement and question, is used when the speaker is stating a claim, but lacks full confidence in the truth of that claim. So if I say, "Is Joan here?" I will probably not be surprised if my respondent answers "no"; but if I say, "Joan is here, isn't she?" instead, chances are I am already biased in favor of a positive answer, wanting only confirmation. I still want a response, but I have enough knowledge (or think I have) to predict that response. A tag question, then, might be thought of as a statement that doesn't demand to be believed by anyone but the speaker, a way of giving leeway, of not forcing the addressee to go along with the views of the speaker.

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[1] From: Ms. July, 1974, 3, pp. 65-65. Copyright Ms. Magazine Corporation, 1974. Reprinted with permission.

Another common use of the tag-question is in small talk when the speaker is trying to elicit conversation: "Sure is hot here, isn't it?"

But in duscussing personal feelings or opinions, only the speaker normally has any way of knowing the correct answer. Sentences such as "I have a headache, don't I?" are clearly ridiculous. But there are other examples where it is the speaker's opinions, rather than perceptions, for which corroboration is sought, as in "The situation in Southeast Asia is terrible, isn't it?"

While there are, of course, other possible interpretations of a sentence like this, one possibility is that the speaker has a particular answer in mind--"yes" or "no"--but is reluctant to state it baldly. This sort of tag question is much more apt to be used by women than by men in conversation. Why is this the case?

The tag question allows a speaker to avoid commitment, and thereby avoid conflict with the addressee. The problem is that, by so doing, speakers may also give the impression of not really being sure of themselves, or looking to the addressee for confirmation of their views. This uncertainty is reinforced in more subliminal ways, too. There is a peculiar sentence intonation pattern, used almost exclusively by women, as far as I know, which changes a declarative answer into a question. The effect of using the rising inflection typical of a yes-no question is to imply that the speaker is seeking confirmation, even though the speaker is clearly the only one who has the requisite information, which is why the question was put to her in the first place:

(Q) When will dinner be ready?

(A) Oh...around six o'clock...?

It is as though the second speaker were saying, "Six o'clock--if that's okay with you, if you agree." The person being addressed is put in the position of having to provide confirmation. One likely consequence of this sort of speech-pattern in a woman is that, often unbeknownst to herself, the speaker builds a reputation of tentativeness, and others will refrain from taking her seriously or trusting her with any real responsibilities, since she "can't make up her mind," and "isn't sure of herself."

Such idiosyncrasies may explain why women's language sounds much more "polite" than men's. It is polite to leave a decision open, not impose your mind, or views, or claims, on anyone else. So a tag-question is a kind of polite statement, in that it does not force agreement or belief on the addressee. In the same way a request is a polite command, in that it does not force obedience on the addressee, but rather suggests something be done as a favor to the speaker. A clearly stated order implies a threat of certain consequences if it is not followed, and--even more impolite--implies that the speaker is in a superior position and able to enforce the order.

By couching wishes in the form of a request, on the other hand, a speaker implies that if the request is not carried out, only the speaker will suffer; noncompliance cannot harm the addressee. So the decision is really left up to addressee. The distinction becomes clear in these examples:

Close the door.

Please close the door.

Will you close the door?

Will you please close the door?

Won't you close the door?

In the same ways as words and speech patterns used *by* women undermine her image, those used *to describe* women make matters even worse. Often a word may be used of both men and women (and perhaps of things as well); but when it is applied to women, it assumes a special meaning that, by implication rather than outright assertion, is derogatory to women as a group.

The use of euphemisms has this effect. A euphemism is a substitute for a word that has acquired a bad connotation by association with something unpleasant or embarrassing. But almost as soon as the new word comes into common usage, it takes on the same old bad connotations, since feelings about the things or people referred to are not altered by a change of name; thus new euphemisms must be constantly found.

There is one euphemism for *woman* still very much alive. The word, of course is *lady*. *Lady* has a masculine counterpart, namely *gentleman*, occasionally shortened to *gent*. But for some reason *lady* is very much commoner than *gent(leman)*.

The decision to use *lady* rather than *woman*, or vice versa, may considerably alter the sense of a sentence, as the following examples show:

(a) A woman (lady) I know is a dean at Berkeley.

(b) A woman (lady) I know makes amazing things out of shoelaces and old boxes.

The use of *lady* in (a) imparts a frivolous, or nonserious, tone to the sentence: the matter under discussion is not one of great moment. Similarly, in (b), using *lady* here would suggest that the speaker considered the "amazing things" not to be serious art, but merely a hobby or an aberration. If *woman* is used, she might a serious sculptor. To say *lady doctor* is very condescending, since no one ever says *gentleman doctor* or even *man doctor*. For example, mention in the San Francisco *Chronicle* of January 31, 1972, of Madalyn Murray O'Hair as the *lady atheist* reduces her position to that of scatterbrained eccentric. Even *woman atheist* is scarcely defensible: sex is irrelevant to her philosophical position.

Many women argue that, on the other hand, *lady* carries with it overtones recalling the age of chivalry: conferring exalted stature on the person so referred to. This makes the term seem polite at first, but we must also remember that these implications are perilous: they suggest that a "lady" is helpless, and cannot do things by herself.

Lady can also be used to infer frivolousness, as in titles of organizations. Those that have a serious purpose (not merely that of enabling "the ladies" to spend time with one another) cannot use the word *lady* in their titles, but less serious ones may. Compare the *Ladies' Auxiliary* of a men's group, or the *Thursday Evening Ladies' Browning and Garden Society* with *Ladies' Liberation* or *Ladies' Strike for Peace.*

What is curious about this split is that *lady* is in origin a euphemism--a substitute that puts a better face on something people find uncomfortable--for *woman.* What kind of euphemism is it that subtly denigrates the people to whom it refers? Perhaps *lady* functions as a euphemism for *woman* because it does not contain the sexual implications present in *woman*: it is not "embarrassing" in that way. If this is so, we may expect that, in the future, *lady* will replace woman as the primary word for the human female, since *woman* will have become too blatantly sexual. That this distinction is already made in some contexts at least is shown in the following examples, where you can try replacing *woman* with *lady:*

(a) She's only twelve, but she's already a woman.

(b) After ten years in jail, Harry wanted to find a woman.

(c) She's my woman, see, so don't mess around with her.

Another common substitute for *woman* is *girl.* One seldom hears a man past the age of adolescence referred to as a boy, save in expressions like "going out with the boys," which are meant to suggest an air of adolescent frivolity and irresponsibility. But women of all ages are "girls": one can have a man--not a boy--Friday, but only a girl--never a woman or even a lady--Friday; women have girlfriends, but men do not--in a nonsexual sense--have boyfriends. It may be that this use of *girl* is euphemistic in the same way the use of *lady* is: in stressing the idea of immaturity, it removes the sexual connotations lurking in *woman. Girl* brings to mind irresponsibility: you don't send a girl to do a woman's errand (or even, for that matter, a boy's errand). She is a person who is both too immature and too far from real life to be entrusted with responsibilities or with decisions of any serious or important nature.

Now let's take a pair of words which, in terms of the possible relationships in an earlier society, were simple male-female equivalents, analogous to *bull : cow.* Suppose we find that, for independent reasons, society has changed in such a way that the original meanings now are irrelevant. Yet the words have not been discarded, but have acquired new meanings, metaphorically related to their original senses. But suppose these new metaphorical uses are no longer parallel to each other. By seeing where the parallelism breaks down, we discover something about the different roles played by men and women in this culture. One good example of such a divergence through time is found in the pair, *master : mistress.* Once used with reference to one's power over servants, these words have become unusable today in their original master-servant sense as the relationship has become less prevalent in our society. But the words are still common.

Unless used with reference to animals, *master* now generally refers to a man who has acquired consummate ability in some field, normally nonsexual. But its feminine counterpart cannot be used this way. It is practically restricted to its sexual sense of "paramour." We start out with two terms, both roughly paraphrasable as "one who has power over another." But the masculine form, once one person is no longer able to have absolute power over another, becomes usable metaphorically in the sense of "having power over *something.*" *Master* requires as its object only the name of some activity, something inanimate and abstract. But *mistress* requires a masculine noun in the possessive to precede it. One cannot say: "Rhonda is a mistress." One must be *someone's* mistress. A man is defined by what he does, a woman by her sexuality, that is, in terms of one particular aspect of her relationship to men. It is one thing to be an *old master* like Hans Holbein, and another to be an *old mistress*.

The same is true of the words *spinster* and *bachelor*--gender words for "one who is not married." The resemblance ends with the definition. While *bachelor* is a neuter term, often used as a compliment, *spinster* normally is used pejoratively, with connotations of prissiness, fussiness, and so on. To be a bachelor implies that one has the choice of marrying or not, and this is what makes the idea of a bachelor existence attractive, in the popular literature. He has been pursued and has successfully eluded his pursuers. But a spinster is one who has not been pursued, or at least not seriously. She is old, unwanted goods. The metaphorical connotations of *bachelor* generally suggest sexual freedom; of *spinster*, puritanism or celibacy.

These examples could be multiplied. It is generally considered a *faux pas*, in society, to congratulate a woman on her engagement, while it is correct to congratulate her fiancé. Why is this? The reason seems to be that it is impolite to remind people of things that may be uncomfortable to them. To congratulate a woman on her engagement is really to say, "Thank goodness! You had a close call!" For the man, on the other hand, there was no such danger. His choosing to marry is viewed as a good thing, but not something essential.

The linguistic double standard holds throughout the life of the relationship. After marriage, bachelor and spinster become man and wife, not man and woman. The woman whose husband dies remains "John's widow"; John, however, is never "Mary's widower."

Finally, why is it that salesclerks and others are so quick to call women customers "dear," "honey," and other terms of endearment they really have no business doing? A male customer would never put up with it. But women, like children, are supposed to enjoy these endearments, rather than being offended by them.

In more ways than one, it's time to speak up.

HOW TO MAKE TROUBLE:
THE MAKING OF A NONSEXIST DICTIONARY[1]

by Alma Graham[2]

The first dictionary to define *sexism,* to include the phrase *liberated women*, and to recognize *Ms.* was a wordbook for children published in 1972 by American Heritage Publishing Company.

It contains 35,000 entries, which were selected after an unprecedented analysis of 5 million words encountered by American children in their schoolbooks.

When the task of compilation began in 1969, we could not predict that the dictionary would be the first ever published in which lexicographers made a conscious effort to correct the sex biases that exist in English as it is commonly used. But the computer revealed a pattern that we who were editing the dictionary could not ignore: in schoolbooks, whether the subject is reading, mathematics, social studies, art, or science, males command center stage. Boys and girls may go to school in equal numbers; they may be graded for equal achievements; but the computer had tipped the scales on the side of male supremacy.

In some ways the American Heritage computer was no different from any other. It was stupid. Though it devoured reams of printed matter--10,000 passages of 500 words each culled from 1,000 books and magazines--it couldn't read. To the computer the "lead" in flaking paint was no different from the "lead" in a play, and a "row" of cabbages was the same as a "row" between lovers. Fortunately, this lack of discrimination was unimportant, for in addition to alphabetizing all its words and ranking them by the frequency of their usage, the computer's unprecedented contribution was to deliver 700,000 citation slips, each of which showed a word in three lines of context. By using these slips, the editors could see each word as it is used in sentences that schoolchildren read, and we could in turn write definitions that schoolchildren could comprehend.

The original objective in using a computer was this obvious one of gaining access to primary sources. Peter Davies, the editor in chief of the school dictionary, was the first to recognize what else the computer had delivered. To Davies, the vast body of words was a reflection of the culture talking to its children. He suspected that if imaginatively used, the computer could also supply a profile of what was being said between the lines.

For example, Davies noticed that when adults write for one another, they refer to young people as *children* almost as often as they call them *boys* and

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[1] From: Ms., December 1973, 6, pp. 12-16. © 1973 Ms Magazine Corp. Reprinted with permission.

[2] Alma Graham is Associate Editor of the American Heritage Dictionary division. She was co-author, with Dure Jo Gillikin, of "Some Women Writers in the Sixties" in "Red Clay Reader 7," and is now planning an anthology of writings on sexism in language.

girls. When writing books and stories for children, however, adults use the gender words *boy* and *girl* twice as often as the neutral words *child* and *children*. When the culture talks to its children, it is careful to distinguish them by sex. Moreover, no matter what the subject being taught, girls and women are always in a minority. Overall, the ratio in schoolbooks of *he* to *she*, *him* to *her*, and *his* to *hers* was almost four to one. Even in home economics, the traditional preserve of the female, the pronoun *he* predominated by nearly two to one.

It was suggested that some of those excess *he*'s might apply not to boys and men but to the unspecified singular subject, as in: a person...he; a student...his; someone...him. To check this out I made a survey of pronoun citations from an earlier, experimental sampling of 100,000 words. Out of 940 citations for *he*, 744 were applied to male human beings, 128 to male animals, and 36 to persons such as farmers and sailors who were assumed to be male. Only 32 referred to the unspecified singular subject. The conclusion was inescapable: the reason most of the pronouns in schoolbooks were male in gender was because most of the subjects being written about were men and boys.

In the real world, there are 100 women for every 95 men. Yet in the books read by schoolchildren, there are over seven times as many men as women and over twice as many boys as girls.

Then another oddity came to light. Despite the preponderance of the words *man* and *boy* in textbooks, the word *mother* occurs more frequently than the word *father*, and the word *wife* is used three times as often as the word *husband*. Women, it would seem, are typecast in the supporting roles that refer to their relationships to men and children.

Might this fact simply imply that in the world of the elementary school the mother is seen as the chief parent? The situation changes when the subject words analyzed are not *mother* and *father* but *daughter* and *son*. An examination of citation slips showed that four times as many sons and daughters are referred to as the children of a male parent (Jim's son; the landlord's daughter) as of a female parent (her son; Mrs. Greenwood's daughter).

Other kinship-term citations revealed still more about this schoolbook never-never land. Two out of every three mothers are mentioned in relation to male children. Father references are even more extreme: four out of every five fathers are fathers of a male. And there's more bald bias: twice as many uncles as aunts, and of those aunts, four times as many have nephews (Charley's aunt) as have nieces (Nelly's aunt); sons outnumber daughters by better than two to one, and every single firstborn child is a son.

Where have all the young girls gone?

It seems clear that they have grown up and have been given (or taken) in marriage--because in schoolbooks wives are three times as numerous as husbands, showing that the speakers or main characters are males. Furthermore, many other words besides *husband* serve as counterparts of *wife*. Farmers' wives and farm wives (but no farm husbands) appear in the citations, as do diplomats' wives and Cabinet wives.

Obviously, the basic imbalance in male/female pairs was far more than simply a numbers game. The 700,000 computer citation slips contained the evidence that boys and girls were also being taught separate sets of values, different expectations, and divergent goals. Boys in the schoolbooks ran races, rode bicycles, drove fast cars, and took off in spaceships for Mars. Girls, on the other hand, were less concerned with doing than with being. After reading, "He was the manliest of his sex and she was the loveliest of hers," a child would say that the word comparable to *manly* was *lovely*, not *womanly*. In the sentence, "The men are strong, virile, and graceful, and the girls often beauties," we note that girls, not women, are paired with men and that *virile* is parallel to *beautiful*. A feminine figure, a feminine voice, and a feminine laugh are no match for masculine prerogatives, masculine egos, and masculine drives. The "mannish uniform" of a female general in the Chinese Army is condemned by the very adjective that describes it, but three modifiers commend "a very feminine dream gown."

If this new dictionary were to serve elementary students without showing favoritism to one sex or the other, an effort would have to be made to restore the gender balance. We would need more examples featuring females, and the examples would have to ascribe to girls and women the active, inventive, and adventurous human traits traditionally reserved for men and boys.

Our new archetypal woman took form gradually. Each of the dozen editors writing and reviewing word entries had special moments of insight and decision when we recognized her presence among us. Mine came at the word *brain*, where a computer citation asserted "he has *brains* and courage." In what seemed at the time an act of audacity, I changed the pronoun. "She has *brains* and courage."

As the number of word entries grew, the new woman made her way from example to example, establishing per priorities, aspirations, and tastes. She was "a woman of dedicated political *principles*." She "made a *name* for herself" and "everyone *praised* her good sense and learning." When she "*plunged* into her work, her mind began to *percolate*" (not her coffee), and "she *prided* herself on her eloquence" (not on the sheen of her freshly waxed floors).

Her appearances in the dictionary were widely separated, of course. Her brothers and traditional sisters continued to surround and outnumber her, example for example. But she had arrived, and from A, where at *abridge* she quoted the 19th Amendment, to Z, when "she *zipped* down the hill on her sled," her spirit, character, and credentials were never in doubt.

As the feminists--male and female--who had brought her into the lexicon cheered her on, "her *determination* to win" was bolstered by our "*devout* wish for her success."

Men in the dictionary examples continued to be active and daring, competitive and combative; but the liberated man could be vulnerable, too. He might be "striving to attain *mastery* over his emotions," but he was not disgraced if "his resolve began to *waver*" or if "tears *welled* up in his eyes." Like the new woman, he had a freer choice of careers than heretofore: "He *teaches* kindergarten" and "he *studies* typing at night."

Ms. was the new word we watched with the greatest degree of interest. Some of us favored adopting it right away, but a problem arose over its pronunciation: it was an abbreviation that anyone could write but that no one could say. Arguments over "miz" or "mis" or "em es" continued through the summer. Then, in October, Bruce Bohle, our usage editor, urged that we enter *Ms.* in the dictionary as an abbreviation whether or not the title could be pronounced with ease. Thus supported, I wrote the definition and Peter Davies provided a note explaining the parallel with *Mr.*, the derivation from *mistress*, and the pronunciation possibilities.

Ms. or Ms An abbreviation used as a title of courtesy before a woman's last name or before her given name and last name, whether she is married or not.

At the same time that womanpower in the dictionary was beginning to be felt, consciousness of woman's powerlessness in the language was rising. As a lexicographer and feminist, I had started a notebook on sexism in language, collecting examples of ways in which men and women were classified as human beings by being labeled with male or female words.

One method used in this socializing process is a tactic I called "my virtue-is-your-vice." Since men and women are supposed to be polar opposites, what is considered admirable in one has to be contemptible in the other. If a woman is commended for the gentle qualities that make her *feminine*, then a man must be condemned for any similar show of softness with the epithet *effeminate*. A man's tears are *womanish*; a woman's uniform *mannish*. The lessons to be learned by both male and female are clear: biology is not only destiny; it is character and personality.

Another trick of socialization is to label what we consider to be the exception to the rule: the *woman* doctor, the *male* nurse, the career *girl* (the phrase *career man* is restricted to government service). The term "feminine logic" illustrates the most negatively sexist use of the modifier tactic since it implies nonlogic or lack of logic. Because *logic* unmodified is assumed by men to apply to men, a woman who thinks logically is said to have "a masculine mind" (a supposed compliment that serves as a questionable exception to the my-virtue-is-your-vice rule).

Then there is the "trivializing tactic." This tactic operates through female gender forms, such as *poetess* and *usherette*, and through the put-down process that turns *liberationist* into *libber*, just as it once turned *suffragist* into *suffragette*.

The tendency in the language that I called "praise him/blame her" is still another device. From Eve and Pandora on, the female has been held responsible for evil and assigned to a semantic house of ill fame. Titles of honor illustrate the point particularly well. *Queen, madam, mistress* and *dame* have all acquired degraded meanings, whereas *prince, king, lord,* and *father* are exalted and applied to God--for even God is thought of as a male and is called Him.

Most pervasive of all is the phenomenon I called the "exclusionary tactic." Here the possibility is simply not considered that the person or or persons being addressed or discussed might be female. A typical example is the loan application that reads: "Full Name. Wife's First Name and Middle Initial. Your Present Employer. Wife's Employer. Your Monthly Salary. Wife's Income (if any)." But the exclusionary tactic employed most tellingly is the constant, careless overuse of the word *man* in its extended senses. When speakers refer to "the leading man in the field," to "the man whose book sells half a million copies," or to "the man they would most like to see as President," they effectively rule out the possibility of a female authority, author, or candidate.

To fight these sexist habits of language, the school dictionary had to avoid gender assumptions that other dictionaries imposed more through custom than necessity. *Youth*, one dictionary said, is "the part of life between childhood and manhood." *Youth,* we said, is "the time of life before one is an adult." *Sex*, itself, we defined straightforwardly, with impersonal examples, avoiding a rival dictionary's use of "the fair, gentle, or weaker sex" and "the sterner or stronger sex" dichotomy.

While we were working our way through the alphabet, other word watchers were already speaking out. In Venice, California, Varda One (formerly Varda Murrell) was analyzing and commenting on a phenomenon she called "Manglish." We could not counter her criticism that dictionaries give less space to *woman* than to *man*. This is not the fault of the dictionary makers, but of a language in which the same word denotes both the human species as a whole and those of its members who are male. In English, contradictory propositions are true: a woman is a man; a woman is not a man.

If a woman is swept off a ship into the water, the cry is "Man overboard!" If she is killed by a hit-and-run driver, the charge is "manslaughter." If she is injured on the job, the coverage is "workmen's compensation." But if she arrives at a threshold marked "Men Only," she knows the admonition is not intended to bar animals or plants or inanimate objects. It is meant for her.

In practice, the sexist assumption that man is a species of males becomes the fact. Erich Fromm certainly seemed to think so when he wrote that man's "vital interests" were "life, food, access to females, etc." Loren Eiseley implied it when he wrote of man that "his back aches, he ruptures easily, his women have difficulties in childbirth...." If these writers had been using *man* in the sense of human species rather than male, they would have written that man's vital interests are life, food, and access to the opposite sex, and that man suffers backaches, ruptures easily, and has difficulties in giving birth.

At every level of achievement and activity--from primitive man to the man of the hour--woman is not taken into account.

Consider the congressman. He is a man of the people. To prove that he's the best man for the job, he takes his case to the man in the street. He is a champion of the workingman. He speaks up for the little man. He has not forgotten the forgotten man. And firmly believes: one man, one vote.

(continued on page 224)

CIVILIZING CIVICS

by Jennifer Macleod and Sandy Silver(wo)man[1]

The government's "smoke-filled rooms" are for men only. That is one of the clear-cut messages we found[2] prevalent in the eight high school civics books (judged "currently popular" by major publishers) we examined. All the following examples are typical of the sexist bias that parents', teachers', and women's groups are seeking to eliminate from the curriculum under the potential authority of Title IX of the 1972 Higher Education Amendments. (Last May, the first textbook complaint under this act was filed against the Kalamazoo, Michigan, public schools.)

In all eight texts, there were only 33 index listings for women, compared to 1,104 for men. Ethel Rosenberg, the convicted, executed spy, and former Senator Margaret Chase Smith tie for prominence with three listings each.

Illustrations are similarly one-sided. In the eight books, the number of pictures showing only men ranged from 53 to 71 percent, whereas just 3 to 9 percent of the pictures portrayed all-women scenes. Women are pictured in traditional sex-stereotyped roles. Two exceptions, however, present female officeholders: Senator Smith is pictured holding a bouquet of roses, and Patsy Mink (D.-Hawaii) is shown throwing snowballs. Checking out the index for Mrs. Ulysses S. Grant, we found only a photo of a mannequin wearing her inaugural gown.

In an introductory unit on "Understanding Democracy," a six-sketch montage shows a man running for office, a man reading about a male candidate, three men discussing politics, a man watching a three-man TV debate, a man cheering a male candidate, and a man casting his vote.

Boys grow up to be "Mr. Average Citizens," and fill out ballots and tax forms. Political leaders are shown as male stick figures in charts. In one book, women get a passing reference when men are displeased with a political issue and "tell their wives, who...discuss [it] over the bridge table." But when women themselves are participating in politics, the context is hardly serious. In one vignette two members of the League of Women Voters observe a council meeting; one sits and knits, the other takes notes "on the back of an envelope."

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[1] Dr. Jennifer Macleod is a research psychologist with her own feminist consulting firm. Sandy Silver(wo)man is Coordinator of the Princeton "Woman's Place" and works as a feminist consultant and as a craftswoman. Both are current officers of the Association of Feminist Consultants.

[2] The study referred to above is: "'You Won't Do': What Textbooks on U.S. Government Teach High School Girls," by Jennifer Macleod and Sandy Silver(wo)man. It may be ordered from KNOW, INC., P.O. Box 86031, Pittsburgh, Pa. 15221 ($2.25 fourth-class mail; $3 air mail). This study offers suggestions for action, including Ms. Silver(wo)man's recommendation that "wo/men" (to be read women and men) and "s/he" (to be read she or he) replace the masculine terminology in textbooks, and concludes with an annotated bibliography of studies on the image of women in all types of textbooks.

One book goes so far as to muse, "Some day perhaps, a Negro, a Jew, a Mormon, even a woman, may have some prospect of being the party [Presidential] nominee." What about Negro, Jewish, and Mormon women? Another text is even more flagrant; its "ideal Presidential candidate" is "an energetic member of the male sex."

The feminist movement receives little or no coverage. One chart, entitled "The Second Bill of Rights," includes the 15th Amendment granting (male) "Negroes" the right to vote. It makes no mention of the 19th Amendment, which, in case your high school textbook didn't tell you, gave *all women* the right to vote.

Consider the policeman or fireman, the postman or milkman, the clergyman or businessman. Whatever else he may be, he is by title a man, and if his employer feels that he is "our kind of man," he may become "our man in the home office" or "our man in Algiers."

From Wordsworth's line "The Child is father of the Man" to the recent New York subway poster "Give a kid a job and help mold a man," a woman is a possibility everyone tends to forget.

When a culture makes adulthood synonymous with manhood, a girl can never reach adulthood at all. There is a clear demarcation between the words *boy* and *man* that does not exist between *girl* and *woman*. A boy greatly increases his stature when he becomes a man, but a girl loses status and bargaining power when she loses her youth. So females are in effect encouraged to cling to girlhood as long as possible. Nor is this reluctance to grow up surprising when one considers the largely negative connotations attached to the word *woman*. To take defeat like a man is to accept it stoically, like a good sport. To take defeat like a woman is usually understood as meaning to weep.

The American Heritage School Dictionary defines sexism as "discrimination by members of one sex against the other, especially by males against females." In order to avoid sexism in language that has come to sound "natural," we devised logical sex-blind substitutes. When referring to the human species, the dictionary employs the term *human beings*, not *man* or *men*.

In our efforts to reduce the superabundance of words referring to the male, we found it was possible to use the word *person* or a more specific substitute instead of *man*. The best man for the job is the best person or candidate; a 12-man jury is a 12-member jury; a real-estate man is a real-estate agent; and machines are used for work formerly done by people or by human beings--not by men.

To avoid unnecessary use of the pronoun *he*, we frequently shifted from the singular to the plural. Instead of saying "insofar as he can, the scientist excludes bias from his thinking," it is easy to change to *they*, *scientists*, and *their*. Plural pronouns desex themselves. The use of *one* is also convenient. A breadwinner, for example, can be "one who supports a family or household by his or her earnings."

Because of our conscious efforts, the nonsexist dictionary is as free of discrimination against either sex as the reformist editors could make it. But as proud as we are of our lexicographers' revolution, writing a nonsexist school dictionary is only the barest beginning. Most schoolbooks still reflect the assumptions of our sexist society. As writers and teachers and parents, we have an obligation now to weigh our words, to examine them, and to use them with greater care. Children of both sexes deserve equal treatment, in life and in language, and we should not offer them anything less.

P/E SR-M
CD-L TL-L

II.A.4.

"Collage: Men/Women at Work"

II. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW LANGUAGE AND THE MEDIA FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

A. Objective: Investigate and discuss the ways in which language and the media (e.g., television, radio, films, books, magazines, songs) reflect, create, and reinforce career-related sex-role stereotypes.

4. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity provides an opportunity for participants to address creatively a variety of media and language-related issues pertaining to career-related sex-role stereotypes.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the activity.

b. Divide participants into mixed sex groups of four. Distribute magazines, newspapers, and other materials to the groups. Assign equal numbers of groups to construct collages depicting either "Men at Work" or "Women at Work."

c. When the collages have been completed, pair each "Men at Work" group with a "Women at Work" group to compare and contrast their results. Suggested discussion questions are:

   1) What types of work are represented in each?
   2) Are the depicted careers traditional, nontraditional, or both?
   3) To what extent do the print media stereotype occupations for white men and women? For women and men of other racial groups?
   4) Do the print media facilitate or inhibit a broad range of career choices for both sexes?
   5) Similarly, do the print media facilitate or inhibit a broad range of career choices for members of different racial and ethnic groups?
   6) How do the participants feel about the media image of men and women at work?

d. After the discussion, display the collages around the workshop room.

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/4 hours

Resources Needed:

Materials: Magazines and newspapers (preferably with color pictures). Leader should bring these or ask participants to do so. Scissors, glue, crayons, magic markers, posterboard sheets or large sheets of drawing paper.

Outcome Criterion:

After each group has constructed a collage and discussed men or women at work, each participant will write a paragraph describing his or her view of how the media (newspapers and magazines) portray men or women at work.

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-M

II.A.5.

"Media Messages"

II. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW LANGUAGE AND THE MEDIA FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

A. Objective: Investigate and discuss the ways in which language and the media (e.g., television, radio, films, books, magazines, songs) reflect, create, and reinforce career-related sex-role stereotypes.

5. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Prior to the workshop have participants explore ways in which men and women are shown on TV and in books and magazines. Magazines and other printed matter could be brought to the workshop by the leader.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of the strategy.

b. In small groups, have participants examine the material for sex bias or share their observations made prior to the workshop.

c. Discuss, in large group, what the participants discovered. Discussion questions to consider:

    1) How are women/men presented in ads? Does race and/or age make a difference? Socioeconomic level?
    2) What are the characteristics of women? Of men? Of minority women? Of minority men? Of older vs. younger people?
    3) Are the characteristics positive or negative?
    4) Who has the leadership role? Who is shown as the person being helped/helping (man or woman) (white or racial minority)?

d. Share the NOW ad, "Hire Him, He's Got Great Legs," as an example of efforts to raise consciousness.

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes

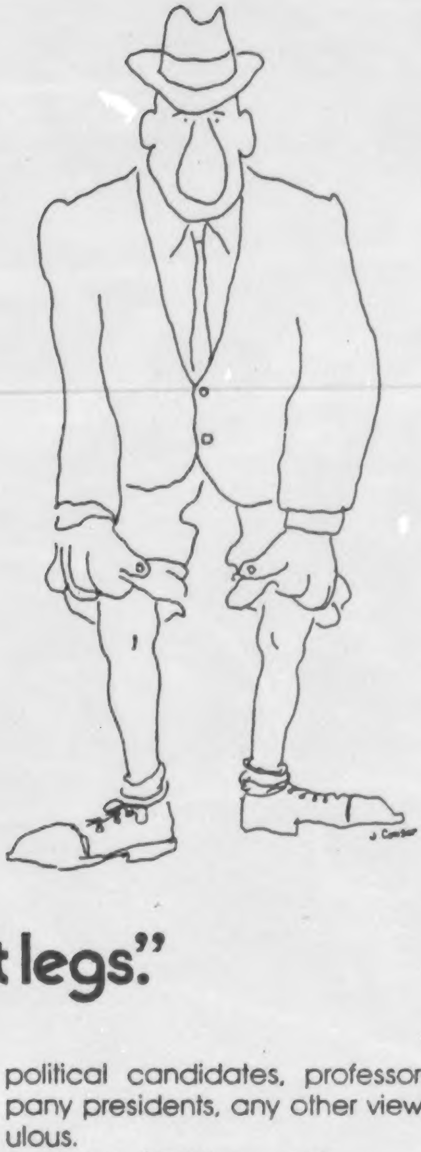
Resources Needed:

Materials: Old magazines and newspapers
Handout: Example of ad sponsored by NOW, "Hire Him, He's Got Great Legs"

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will point out examples of advertisements that show sex, race, and age stereotyping.

From: NOW. © NOW Legal Defense and Education Fund. Permission to reprint granted.



"Hire him. He's got great legs."

If women thought this way about men they would be awfully silly.

When men think this way about women they're silly, too.

Women should be judged for a job by whether or not they can do it.

In a world where women are doctors, lawyers, judges, brokers, economists, scientists, political candidates, professors and company presidents, any other viewpoint is ridiculous.

Think of it this way. When we need all the help we can get, why waste half the brains around?

Womanpower. It's much too good to waste.

For information: NOW Legal Defense and Education Fund Inc., 127 East 59th Street, Dept. K, New York, New York 10022

"What's Wrong with This Picture?"

II. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW LANGUAGE AND THE MEDIA FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

A. Objective: Investigate and discuss the ways in which language and the media (e.g., television, radio, films, books, magazines, songs) reflect, create, and reinforce career-related sex-role stereotypes.

6. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy, dealing with media influence on stereotyping, is designed for a two-day period but can be done in a shorter time by furnishing the materials needed or by advanced planning with participants.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Divide participants into groups of pairs.

c. Assign them (or allow them to choose) a media influence (pleasure books, textbooks, greeting cards, popular magazines, fairy tales, ads from newspapers or magazines, tapes from radio, TV commercials, or newspapers--e.g., "Ann Landers," and comics).

d. Have them bring to the next meeting a sampling of the media influence chosen.

e. In small groups assess how the sample materials (media influences) convey or do not convey sexism and how the materials would influence children and adults in their sex-role and career-role orientation. Include observations on how minorities (male and female) are depicted and the extent to which this may reflect and/or perpetuate stereotypes.

f. Convene the large group to allow participants time to share their findings with members of groups investigating other media influences.

g. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: Part c: 10 minutes
Part e: 30 minutes
Part f: 30 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Small groups bring in or the leader furnishes (see above example)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list three specific examples of how they found that the media influence the socialization process.

P/E SR-L
CD-M TL-L

II.A.7.

"Seeing Is Believing"

II. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW LANGUAGE AND THE MEDIA FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

A. Objective: Investigate and discuss the ways in which language and the media (e.g., television, radio, films, books, magazines, songs) reflect, create, and reinforce career-related sex-role stereotypes.

7. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Although the influence of TV messages on male and female roles has not been a major focus of BORN FREE, the power of the media should not be overlooked or ignored. Participants should be made aware of ways in which media messages, along with those from parents, peers, and educators, influence students' self-perceptions and career options. Leaders may wish to supplement this strategy with actual analysis of TV programs and commercials.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Have participants read the handout "Seeing Is Believing: Toward Visual Media Free of Bias" (Pickens, 1977).

c. Suggestions for discussion:

1) Why does special attention need to be given to visual media?
2) In what subtle and not-so-subtle ways do visual messages communicate sex-role stereotypes?
3) What kinds of messages are communicated about men and women and their roles in current popular television shows?
4) In what ways are race, age, and sex stereotypes similar?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Seeing Is Believing: Toward Visual Media Free of Bias" (Pickens, 1977)
Reference: Pickens, Rao, and Roberts (1977)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list five criteria for discerning sex bias in visual media.

SEEING IS BELIEVING[1]

AVOIDING SEXISM

Laws and suggestions regarding treatment of the sexes discussed elsewhere in the book relate equally well to visual media and some points are crucial here, for example: sex-role stereotyping.

Grant equal respect to women and men in visual media and avoid trivializing or stereotyping either sex. Visual media often foster the notion that men always are dominant and women always subordinate. Depict women and men of comparable work levels or positions equally. For example, photos might show both standing or sitting to reinforce their equality. Depicting the man seated at his desk and the woman standing at his side supports women-as-subordinate thinking. Even when dealing with supervisory relationships, positive human relations may be fostered by attention to positioning of the subjects.

Visual media also frequently support the idea that men are responsible persons while women are not. For example, a story or slide presentation showing only some of the people working on a project presents the communicator with a choice about subjects to use--and about equal treatment. If all the supervisors are men (as is still often the case), the result will be all-male groupings if the communicator elects to depict only the top people. An alternative is to select subjects that represent a cross section of the staff and thereby give recognition to some women--and a broader range of employees.

Perhaps the most obvious reinforcement of sex-role stereotyping is the treatment of women as pretty, sociable and shallow. Such sexism often occurs at grand openings and similar occasions. Showing the local beauty queen about to cut the ribbon substantiates limited thinking about abilities of women. As one option, picture a prominent businesswoman (or businessman) doing the honors or otherwise participating in the opening, thus supporting expanded thinking about the abilities of women.

Of course, the communicator has to work with what is available. If a beauty-queen picture must be used, make it one giving the woman some depth, such as showing her interested in merchandise at the new store. Illustrate that she knows how to do something besides cut ribbons.

Represent both women and men in visual media. Following this guideline can be as simple as checking faces in the viewfinder before shooting, carefully selecting the footage to use or cropping judiciously.

A balance need not be struck in every photograph, slide or film segment. The total publication, slide presentation or film should be evaluated, as should the organization's total communication effort for an extended period of time.

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[1] From: Pickens, J.E., "Seeing Is Believing: Toward Visual Media Free of Bias." In J.E. Pickens, P.W. Rao, and L.C. Roberts (Eds.), Without Bias: A Guidebook for Nondiscriminatory Communications. San Francisco: International Association of Business Communicators, 1977. Permission granted.

Cartoons easily can contribute to biased communication since much humor is still based on sex-role stereotypes. The characterization of women as dumb broads with no business sense often appears, as does the characterization of men as inept around the house. Such cartoons should be avoided and consideration given to substituting others that still are humorous--but that make a statement about equal treatment. Wise use of the element of humor can be a light-hearted, subtle way to discourage stereotyping.

The artist bringing life to objects such as machinery or office equipment should refer to the points made previously about stereotyping and representation. For example, illustrations may depict the big, fast, sleek car as male and the compact, dumpy, utility model as female. Such treatment isn't realistic and can be offensive.

Adhere to non-sexist writing principles in cutlines, scripts and other language associated with visual media, as set forth elsewhere in this publication.

AVOIDING RACISM AND ETHNOCENTRISM

Grant equal respect to people in visual media, without regard to racial or ethnic group. Avoid situations that consistently show members of any racial or ethnic group as superior or inferior. No matter how subtle, the implication is that certain racial or ethnic groups belong in particular roles, for example, Chicanos consistently portrayed as blue-collar workers or Asians as loyal, subservient employees. Racial or ethnic slurs used in cartoons are offensive to many people and are rapidly becoming unacceptable put-downs for any audience.

Subjects should be depicted as they are. Asian skin is not bright yellow; shades of brown or tan are more true to life. Facial structures vary greatly among Chinese, Japanese and Koreans and blacks don't all look alike, either in skin tone or facial structure. Allowing time to research can result in more accurate communication.

Portray in visual media a balanced representation of racial and ethnic groups. As outlined in the discussion on equal representation of the sexes, plan, shoot, crop, sketch and edit for a realistic balance. Note the word "realistic"; communication should reflect the proportionate makeup of the organization or community, not an artificial one. If a communicator takes affirmative action by seeking out and including a visual balance of racial and ethnic groups at a wide range of job levels, he or she may help improve that makeup by encouraging persons to aspire to roles that have traditionally been out of reach.

Adhere to nondiscriminatory writing principles in cutlines, scripts and other language associated with visual media.

AVOIDING OTHER FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION

Other forms of discrimination occur based on age or physical or mental ability. Again, the guidelines are similar to those applied to sexism or racism.

Grant equal respect in visual media to persons of all ages and abilities. Present a balanced representation of ages and abilities. Adhere to nondiscriminatory writing principles in cutlines, scripts and other language associated with visual media.

GOAL III

PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURES AND PRACTICES FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

Objectives and Learning Strategies

A. Examine obvious and more subtle types of behaviors which influence choices made in school by female and male students.

   1. The Ideal Female/Male Student
   2. School Situations: Role Plays

B. Identify school policies and structures which reinforce sex stereotypes.

   1. School Comparison Charts
   2. Role Behavior Checklist
   3. Examination of Curriculum Areas
   4. Vocational Education and Sex-Role Stereotyping
   5. The Politics of Training Teachers in Schools
   6. Schools as Influencers (Videotape)
   7. Colleges as Influencers (Videotape)

C. Identify and critique sex-role stereotypes in textbooks, career development materials, and other educational materials.

   1. Textbook Analysis of Sex-Role Stereotypes
   2. Stereotypes of the Physically Disabled

"The Ideal Female/Male Student"

III. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURES AND PRACTICES FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

A. Objective: Examine obvious and more subtle types of behaviors which influence choices made in school by female and male students.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity is designed to help participants become more aware of the different expectations and rewards for girls and boys in their schools. As it is an extremely revealing exercise for groups, it is important to follow the guidelines for brainstorming in the introductory section of this packet.

This strategy is related to I.C.2., "Early Sex-Role Messages."

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Divide the participants into heterogeneous groups of five to eight persons.

c. Distribute newsprint and felt-tip markers to all the groups.

d. Each group will respond to one of the following stimulus statements for 20 minutes, with one person from each group to be designated by the group as recorder. Equal numbers of work groups should respond to each statement. The stimulus statements are as follows:

1) In my school, the students feel that the ideal female student is...

2) In my school, the faculty members feel that the ideal female student is...

3) In my school, the students feel that the ideal male student is...

4) In my school, the faculty members feel that the ideal male student is...

Each statement should be completed with as many examples as possible of applicable behaviors, attitudes, and values. (See the guidelines for brainstorming in the introductory section of this packet.)

e. Depending upon the size of the total group and the time available, the leader(s) should facilitate one of the following:

1) Bring together all of the subgroups responding to stimulus questions d.1 and d.2, and ask them to compare and contrast their responses for 10 to 15 minutes. Likewise bring together all of the subgroups responding to stimulus questions d.3 and d.4. Then reconvene the full group to make comparisons among the responses of all the subgroups. Post the newsprint, and refer to the suggested discussion questions in f.

2) Reconvene the full group to make comparisons among the responses of all the subgroups. Post the newsprint, and refer to the suggested discussion questions in f. below.

f. Suggested discussion questions to aid in processing this exercise are as follows:

   1) What are major differences and similarities of the idealized students?
   2) What kinds of rewards (special honors or day-to-day reinforcement) does your school offer to persons who fit their ideals?
   3) In what ways does your school staff reinforce or break down the stereotypes of the ideal boy and girl (and, therefore, of boys and girls in general)? Be specific.
   4) In what ways do students' racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic backgrounds affect the identification of the ideal student?
   5) Discuss and list ways in which school policies and procedures tend to reinforce or break down sex stereotypes (e.g., availability of courses, extracurricular activities, and other stereotypes).

g. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Materials: Newsprint, felt-tip pens, masking tape
References: Slayton Mitchell (1975, 1976)
Minuchin (1972)

Outcome Criteria:

Participants will list two ways in which boy students and girl students are viewed. They also will write a short essay discussing the ways in which these views inhibit or facilitate career choices.

"School Situations: Role Plays"

III. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURES AND PRACTICES FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

A. Objective: Examine obvious and more subtle types of behaviors which influence choices made in school by female and male students.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy is related to IV.A.3., "Role Playing Family Situations."

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Ask for volunteers to role play students and school personnel engaged in discussing nontraditional role or career choices.

c. Choose one of the "Role-Play Situations" from the handout (attached) and give each role player a copy of the description. Refer to guidelines for "Role Playing" in the introductory section of this packet and give instructions to the role players.

d. Allow role play to proceed for 10-15 minutes or when a natural break occurs.

e. Lead discussion with role-play participants and workshop members. Some suggested questions:

   1) How did it feel to be in the roles?
   2) Did you assume that the individual you played was white? Would the role play have been different if the individual had been from a different race, physically handicapped, or otherwise a minority member?
   3) What "fit" about the roles, and what do you think you would change if you were to do the role again?
   4) Have any somewhat comparable situations arisen in your own work?
   5) What kind of personal relationship or institutional structures would particularly support or inhibit your involvement in an actual situation like this?

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: Allow 10 minutes for each role-play situation, 10 minutes for preparation, and 10 minutes for discussion of role play.

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Role-Play Situations"

References: Slayton Mitchell (1975, 1976)
Cottle (1972)
Pleck and Sawyer (1974)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list three new ways to facilitate the career development of secondary students.

ROLE-PLAY SITUATIONS

1. High school female wants to become a car mechanic and comes to her teacher to talk about it.

2. Senior high school male plans to be an elementary school teacher and comes to his counselor for more information.

3. Junior high school male wants to go out for cheerleading. Presently all the school cheerleaders are female. He comes to the school administrator to see what his chances for being chosen might be.

4. Junior high school female wants to be on the all-male basketball team. There is a girls' basketball team, but it is not a conference team. She comes to the male coach to see if she can join.

5. High school female comes to adviser or counselor upset about the sex-biased statements of her math teacher about the unimportance of her continuing in math, her favorite subject.

6. High school male comes to counselor upset because of the widespread negative peer pressure from his male friends about his recent acceptance into the local ballet company. He is extremely interested in ballet but now is questioning his decision.

"School Comparison Charts"

III. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURES AND PRACTICES FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

B. Objective: Identify school policies and structures which reinforce sex stereotypes.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Different points of emphasis could emerge during the course of this activity, depending upon the nature of the workshop population. For example, the faculty members of a particular school might check their perceptions of the school with the perceptions of faculty from different schools or different districts. There might be quite different policies and practices. In any case, every effort should be made to structure heterogeneous groups of three people. In addition, more accurate data, of course, will be available if participants can check with their schools; but best estimates will be helpful if specific data gathering is not possible.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Divide participants into groups of three.

c. Distribute a "School Comparison Chart" to each participant, and newsprint and felt-tip pen to each group.

d. Each person is to respond to the questions, and each group is then to develop a comparison chart for the items (approximately 20 minutes).

e. Then, in the larger group, have participants discuss these questions:

   1) How would your answers have varied if you had explicitly taken students' racial, ethnic, or socioeconomic background into account?
   2) Why do students choose these classes, activities, etc.?
   3) How do the attitudes and behaviors of school personnel influence these choices?
   4) In what ways might parents, the community, etc., influence these choices?

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Handout: "School Comparison Chart"
Materials: Newsprint, felt-tip pens

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list three facilitating and three inhibiting factors that influence sex-role stereotyping in their school.

SCHOOL COMPARISON CHART

1. How many girls/boys are in sewing, cooking, metal shop, woodworking, etc.?
2. How many interscholastic sports are available for girls/boys in the school?
3. How many extracurricular jobs do we have in the school? How many girls/boys are in these jobs?
4. How many classes have more than 80% boys or 80% girls?
5. How many men and women are in teaching positions, clerical positions, food services positions, custodial positions, administrative positions?
6. What other differences in practices involving girls and boys can we identify in our schools?
7. How many Black, Asian, Hispanic, or Native American males/females are involved in the above activities?

E SR-M
CD-L TL-M

III.B.2.

"Role Behavior Checklist"[1]

III. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURES AND PRACTICES FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

B. Objective: Identify school policies and structures which reinforce sex stereotypes.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity is designed to help participants focus on specific examples of unequal treatment of boys and girls. The entire activity can be adapted to increase awareness of other limiting stereotypes by substituting race, or other issues, in the questions. For example, question 2, "Are you aware of examples of commenting on the appropriateness of the grooming or style of dress of one race more than another?"

If participants share examples of their own stereotyped behaviors, this activity could be somewhat threatening. If the message "We all exhibit stereotyped behaviors, and are in this together to learn different ways to work with others" can be made clear, thereby encouraging more personalized rather than "textbook" discussions, more benefits will be potentially available to the group.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Divide the group into subgroups of six to eight persons.

c. Distribute a "Role Behavior Checklist" (attached) to each participant.

d. Instruct participants to write responses to the items (10 to 15 minutes should be ample time), then discuss their responses in their subgroups. Sample discussion questions are:

   1) Which of the items had the strongest impact on you? Why?
   2) Which sounded most familiar based on your experience in schools?
   3) In what ways would the behaviors described in the checklist items inhibit or facilitate the sex-stereotype-free growth of students?

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

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[1] Adapted from: Emma Willard Task Force on Education. Sexism in education. Minneapolis: Emma Willard Task Force on Education, 1971.

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Role Behavior Checklist"
Reference: Emma Willard Task Force on Education (1971)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will have discussed examples of differential responses to female and male students and the implications of these for their development.

ROLE BEHAVIOR CHECKLIST

In your experience in the schools,

1. are you aware of examples of excusing behaviors of boys/girls that you would not tolerate in the other sex?

   Example:

2. are you aware of examples of commenting on the appropriateness of the grooming or style of dress of one sex more than the other?

   Example:

3. are you aware of examples of expecting boys to exhibit quite different personality traits from girls (e.g., regarding aggressiveness, independence, moodiness, etc.)?

   Example:

4. are you aware of anticipating girls or boys in general to exhibit particular strengths in certain academic areas (e.g., math, the humanities, science, social studies)?

   Example:

5. are you aware of examples of expecting either girls or boys to demonstrate more curiosity and creativity?

   Example:

6. are you aware of expecting the written work of one sex or the other to be more neat, grammatically correct, etc.?

   Example:

7. are you aware of examples of punishing students by having them sit with the other sex?

   Example:

8. are you aware of any differences in extracurricular opportunities for boys and girls?

   Example:

9. are you aware of examples of expecting the members of one sex to be more mannerly, docile, "nice" than the other?

   Example:

10. are you aware of courses segregated by sex or of particular classrooms in which the students are segregated by sex?

Example:

11. are you aware of examples of expecting the members of one sex to be more interested in the home, family life, and child care than the other?

    Example:

12. are you aware of examples of girls and boys with comparable academic interests and abilities receiving different advice regarding educational or vocational planning?

    Example:

13. are you aware of examples of faculty members' referring to their students only on the basis of their sex (e.g., "I want two boys and two girls to volunteer")?

    Example:

14. are you aware of examples of encouraging only boys to be chivalrous (e.g., relinquishing their chairs, carrying heavy objects)?

    Example:

15. are you aware of different expectations for minority girls and/or boys, with respect to the above questions?

    Example:

E SR-M
CD-L TL-L

III.B.3.

"Examination of Curriculum Areas"

III. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURES AND PRACTICES FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

B. Objective: Identify school policies and structures which reinforce sex stereotypes.

3. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Distribute a copy of the checklist "Evaluation of Curriculum Areas: Worksheet" to each participant.

1) Part I. Give these directions:
"Think back to your own experience in high school and identify the following general curriculum areas as to whether females or males demonstrated more achievement in them. Remember, this is as you recall it to be when you were in school."

2) Part II. Give these directions:
"Now consider these same areas as they tend to be categorized in the school where you now work."

c. Suggested group discussion questions are:

1) When you were a student, were there any messages about the appropriateness of achievement for boys and girls? Did these messages differ for various racial groups? For other minorities?
2) Why do you think such messages were given?
3) Who or what were the sources of the messages?
4) To what extent do these kinds of messages exist in your present school?
5) Are there any major differences between the responses to Part I and Part II? Should there be? Why?
6) In your present school, are certain curriculum areas heavily represented by students from a particular racial or ethnic group? If so, are there explicit or implicit messages which tend to perpetuate this pattern?
7) Consider the messages in your school related to girls' and boys' achievement in extracurricular activities. Are some areas expected to be for girls only or boys only, and what are the bases for such expectations?
8) Which messages seem most likely to facilitate or inhibit the career options of students? Why?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Handouts: "Examination of Curriculum Areas: Worksheet"
References: Emma Willard Task Force on Education (1971)
Golden and Hunter (1974)
Stebbins, Ames, and Rhodes (1975)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will have discussed the sources and validity of messages they have received and assumptions they have made regarding areas of academic achievement.

EXAMINATION OF CURRICULUM AREAS: WORKSHEET

Part I
Directions: Think back to your own experience in high school and identify the following general curriculum areas as to whether females or males demonstrated more achievement in them. Remember, this is as you recall it to be when you were in school.

_____ Art
_____ Business
_____ English
_____ Home Economics
_____ Industrial Arts
_____ Languages
_____ Math
_____ Music
_____ Physical Education
_____ Science
_____ Social Studies

Part II
Directions: Now consider these same areas as they are categorized in your present school.

_____ Art
_____ Business
_____ English
_____ Home Economics
_____ Industrial Arts
_____ Languages
_____ Math
_____ Music
_____ Physical Education
_____ Science
_____ Social Studies

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III.B.3.

EXAMINATION OF CURRICULUM AREAS: WORKSHEET

Part I
Directions: Think back to your own experience in high school and identify the following general curriculum areas as to whether females or males demonstrated more achievement in them. Remember, this is as you recall it to be when you were in school.

_____ Art
_____ Business
_____ English
_____ Home Economics
_____ Industrial Arts
_____ Languages
_____ Math
_____ Music
_____ Physical Education
_____ Science
_____ Social Studies

Part II
Directions: Now consider these same areas as they tend to be categorized in the school where you now work.

_____ Art
_____ Business
_____ English
_____ Home Economics
_____ Industrial Arts
_____ Languages
_____ Math
_____ Music
_____ Physical Education
_____ Science
_____ Social Studies

E SR-M
CD-L TL-L

III.B.4.

"Vocational Education and Sex-Role Stereotyping"

III. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURES AND PRACTICES FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

B. Objective: Identify school policies and structures which reinforce sex stereotypes.

4. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

The field of vocational education is a vitally important one in which to address issues related to sex-role stereotyping. This strategy is designed to stimulate some initial thinking about ways in which vocational educators can reduce sex-role stereotyping and thereby help to combat occupational segregation by sex. The attached article, "Resources on Eliminating Sex-Role Stereotyping in Vocational Education," can be used as an additional resource at the leader's discretion.

Instructions:

a. Prior to the session, distribute copies of Corinne Rieder's "Work, Women, and Vocational Education" to the participants. Also distribute copies of the handout "Discussion Questions" and ask participants to be prepared to discuss them.

b. For the discussion session, divide the group into subgroups of four to six people. Each subgroup should select two or three of the discussion questions to consider for 45 minutes to an hour.

c. Summarize in large group.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes (for reading article prior to session)
45 minutes (discussion time)

Resources Needed:

Handouts: "Work, Women, and Vocational Education" (Rieder, 1977)
"Discussion Questions for 'Work, Women, and Vocational Education'"
Attached Article: "Resources on Eliminating Sex-Role Stereotyping in Vocational Education" (Justice and Budke, 1977)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list five possible strategies to reduce vocational education-related sex-role stereotyping in their home institution.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS FOR "WORK, WOMEN, AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION"

1. For you personally, what were the most significant aspects of the article?

2. What is meant by the term "occupational segregation of women"? What are some implications of it in the labor market?

3. What inroads can vocational education institutions make into the reduction of occupational segregation?

4. Discuss the six steps mentioned in the article which can be taken by vocational educators to reduce sex-role stereotyping and occupational segregation. Which would be most helpful in your own school? Which are most feasible?

5. Discuss the attitudes of your own colleagues which may inhibit or support the kinds of efforts mentioned in question 4.

6. Consider the impact of occupational segregation on male vocational students.

7. What are some of the interaction effects of sex-role stereotyping with stereotyping by race, by ethnic background, and by socioeconomic class?

WORK, WOMEN, AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION[1]

by Corinne H. Rieder

Most of the 37 million women who are now working in the United States are occupationally segregated. That is to say, they are victimized by covert discrimination, often unintentional, and by socialization practices that effectively limit their careers. What's more, 1.2 million women who will join them this year will enter the same low-pay, low-status jobs that women have traditionally held. In addressing this issue, a fair question would be: Do vocational-education programs contribute to this job and pay segregation? If indeed they do, a further question must be answered: What can be done about it?

The struggle for equity for women in work and training should not be confused with some of the more inflammatory and highly publicized aspects of the feminist movement. Although it may lack the theatrics to win headlines, that struggle is the essence of the movement and a revolution in American society. Any discussion of women and work must begin with the extraordinary and largely unforeseen number of women entering the work force.

In the first 40 years of this century, the labor-force-participation rate of women rose slowly from 20 percent in 1900 to 29 percent in 1940. This situation changed dramatically when, after America entered World War II, women replaced men in many traditionally all-male occupations. Instead of declining after the war, women's entry into the labor market accelerated. In the 25-year period between 1949 and 1974, the number of American women who worked for pay outside the home more than doubled and they continue to enter the labor force at an extraordinary rate, making up 33 percent of the national work force in 1960, 38 percent in 1970 and more than 40 percent in 1976, a figure they were not expected to reach until 1985, according to U.S. Labor Department forecasts made as recently as three years ago. Economists are now saying that half of American women over 16 will be in the work force within two or three years.

Eli Ginsberg, chairman of the National Commission for Manpower Policy, has gone so far as to call the increase of women in the work force "the single most outstanding phenomenon of our century" and to add that "its long-term implications are absolutely unchartable.... It will affect women, men, and children, and the cumulative consequences of that will only be revealed in the 21st and 22nd centuries."

There are many factors accounting for this increase of women in the work force. Among them are the availability of jobs, particularly in those rapidly growing fields--sales, clerical, service--where there is a preponderance of women; the rising divorce rates, the declining birth rates, and later marriages; the increasing number of women who are educated, particularly female college graduates who want to pursue careers; the high inflation rate which makes a second income necessary for a family to survive or to maintain a standard of living; and finally, the women's movement, which has raised social consciousness, made working for pay outside the home more socially acceptable for mothers, and fostered the view that through work women can find additional intellectual and personal fulfillment.

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[1] From: American Education, June, 1977, 3 (5), pp. 27-30. Reprinted by permission of Corinne H. Rieder, Executive Director, Youthwork, Inc., 805 Fifteenth St,, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20005. (202) 347-2900.

Despite the gains in the number of women employed, the patterns of job segregation that confine women to the traditionally "female" occupations have not changed. Whether one examines specific occupations, occupational groups, or concentration by industry, women are less well distributed in the work force than men. To illustrate, more than 40 percent of all women in the work force are employed in ten occupations: secretary, retail sales clerk, bookkeeper, private household worker, elementary-school teacher, waitress, typist, cashier, nurse, and seamstress. By comparison, only 20 percent of males are concentrated in the ten largest occupations employing men.

The occupational segregation of women is also evident in comparing men and women by occupational groups. Nearly 70 percent of women are employed in three occupational groups: clerical (35 percent), service (18 percent), and professional and technical (15 percent). Only 50 percent of men are employed in the largest three occupational groups employing men: skilled crafts (21 percent), professional and technical (14 percent), and managers (14 percent).

Finally, occupational segregation by sex also exists by industries. Sixty-three percent of all women employed in nonagricultural positions are concentrated in services (25 percent), retail (20 percent), and state and local government (18 percent, largely teachers). In comparison, 45 percent of men are concentrated in the three largest industries employing men: manufacturing (19 percent), retail (14 percent), and state and local government (12 percent).

Within occupations, women are also segregated. In medicine, they are overrepresented in pediatrics, psychiatry, anesthesiology, and pathology but grossly underrepresented in surgery and surgical specialties. In addition, they are less likely than men to be in private practice and particularly in private solo practice. In law, few women are in the upper echelons of law firms, on judicial benches, or in prominent positions in state and national legislatures. And in education, women account for nearly 85 percent of the nation's elementary teachers but less than 50 percent of secondary-school teachers and only 25 percent of college-level teachers. In school administration, the figures are even more striking. Here women account for only 19 percent of all elementary principals, one percent of secondary principals, and only one-tenth of one percent of school superintendents. Today there are only 150 women who are chief executives of colleges, mostly two-year and four-year church-related colleges with small enrollments. Outside education, nearly one out of seven men are in managerial and administrative positions; the comparable ratio for women is one out of 20.

The result of women's occupational segregation in the labor market is low wages. This occurs even in the fastest growing industries. For example, women who work full time had median weekly earnings of $124 in 1974. This is about 60 percent of the $204 reported for men. In fact, during the last few years the difference in earnings between men and women widened slightly. Across industries, female earnings as a percentage of male earnings are best in agriculture (83 percent) and public administration (71 percent). They are worst in finance, insurance, and real estate (56 percent), and in manufacturing (57 percent).

Even the economic return associated with greater educational attainment is substantially less for women than for men. In 1974 the median income for a female college graduate who worked full time was $9,771; for men, median earnings were $16,576.

Low wages for women hurt not only women but also children and men. First, women work because of economic need, just as men do. Sixty-seven percent of working women are either single, divorced, widowed, separated, or have husbands who earn less than $7,000 per year. In many instances the earnings of wives make the difference between a middle or a low standard of living.

Divorce and separation are increasing in our society, and the final impact is often severe. Only 50 percent of women in divorce actions receive alimony or child support. For those, the median total payment is $1,300 per year. The median annual wage for a female-headed family is only $5,116 and nearly 33 percent of such families have incomes below the poverty line. For minorities the problems are even more severe, and more than half of all families headed by a minority woman have incomes below the poverty level. A General Accounting Office report recently found that the combined average monthly income of women and children receiving both welfare and earned income in 1975 was less than $300 a month; the median income of the man who abandoned them was about $800 a month.

The concentration of women in traditional female occupations is barely changing. In the ten-year period between 1960 and 1970, the number of women in the skilled trades--a matter of utmost importance to vocational educators--increased by 218,000 (from 277,000 to 495,000). In specific trades, the female share of employment increased as follows: for carpenters, from 0.4 to 1.3 percent; for electricians, from 0.7 to 1.8 percent; for plumbers, from 0.3 to 1.1 percent; for auto mechanics, from 0.4 to 1.4 percent; for painters, from 1.9 to 4.1 percent; for tool-and-die makers, from 0.6 to 2.1 percent; and for machinists, from 1.3 to 3.1 percent. In the health professions, by way of comparison, the proportion of women physicians rose from 7 to 9 percent and women dentists increased from 2.3 to 3.4 percent.

When measured as a rate of increase, women's entry into nontraditional occupations showed impressive growth. For example, the number of women carpenters quadrupled in the decade 1960-1970. This rate of growth is encouraging, but the absolute numbers of women in such occupations are so small that it remains to be seen if such growth rates can continue in the future. For the most part women keep crowding the clerical and service fields, and over the next decade projections indicate that two-thirds of the total increase in employment of women will take place in those traditionally female occupations.

Because vocational-education enrollments faithfully mirror the occupational segregation by sex in the labor force, it may be inferred that vocational education has done little to eliminate occupational segregation.

Although women make up 55 percent (6.4 million) of the 11.6 million students enrolled in federally funded vocational education and two-thirds of all secondary vocational enrollments, they are heavily concentrated in home economics (leading mainly to unpaid homemaking roles), and in office and health occupations. For example, about 45 percent of the women receiving vocational education in 1972 were enrolled in consumer and homemaking classes, and women constituted 92 percent of all enrollees in these programs. Twenty-eight percent of all women vocational students were taking training leading to office occupations, and again they made up a substantial percentage (84.7) of all enrollees in such programs.

Conversely, women are underrepresented in trade, industrial, and technical education. In trade and industrial occupations, they make up less than 12 percent of total enrollments and even then they are heavily concentrated in such traditionally female fields as cosmetology, textile production and fabrication, commercial and graphic arts, public services, and supervisory training. In technical occupations, less than ten percent of the total enrollment is female, and in only one occupational title--scientific data technology--do women make up more than 30 percent of total enrollments.

Thus almost all the women in vocational education are concentrated in a few traditional programs. Change has been slow, but the changes are interesting to review: Between 1969 and 1973, a few women began to enroll in traditionally "male" vocational programs. Although the number of women enrolled in these programs was small, the increase was significant. In air-conditioning courses the number of women enrollees went from 70 to 2,664; in auto body and fender repair, from 7 to 1,082; in auto mechanics, from 906 to 4,299; in carpentry, from 111 to 1,451; in metal occupations, from 1,367 to 3,081; in law-enforcement training, from 2,225 to 4,943; and in woodworking occupations, from 592 to 5,373.

Ending occupational sex-role stereotyping and segregation is most certainly in the national interest. Consider the loss to the country when one-half of the population is unable to make a full contribution to the general economic, political, and social welfare because of occupational sex-role stereotyping. By limiting male roles and female roles, men as well as women are affected. If sex-role stereotyping were eliminated, many more service and white-collar opportunities would be open to men. Why shouldn't it be considered appropriate for a man to be an elementary-school teacher, a clerk typist, or a nurse, and for a woman to be a bus driver or a skilled craft worker?

Eliminating the "overcrowding" of women in a narrow band of occupations would tend to equalize incomes between men and women. And that could be an advantage to both sexes. The recent recession brought home to many men first-hand what it was like to have to live on their wives' income. As men were laid off, they began to look more seriously at their wives' low income and to question why it was so low.

Vocational educators, as much as any other single group in our society, have both the responsibility and the means to do something about these problems. They are at the critical juncture between school and work; they recruit students, provide them with the knowledge and skills needed for successful job entry, and place them in their first jobs. Their responsibility is to represent the utilitarian purposes of education and to meet society's economic needs. Within the world of work, they are concerned with developing their students' potential to the fullest and placing students in a work environment that is financially and psychologically rewarding. They must stand in the first rank in the battle against occupational and educational segregation.

Vocational educators can take six steps toward combating sex-role stereotyping and occupational segregation. First, they can implement fully the vocational-education section of the Education Amendments of 1976. The Act is unequivocal on the problem of sex bias in vocational education, calling for the assignment of full-time personnel who will: create greater awareness of vocational-education programs and activities that reduce sex stereotyping; gather, analyze, and disseminate data on the status of male and female students and employees; review the distribution of grants by the state boards to ensure that women's needs are being met; review vocational programs for sex bias; monitor all personnel laws prohibiting discrimination; review and submit recommendations in the annual program plan and report; and provide assistance to local-education agencies or other bodies in overcoming sex stereotyping and sex bias.

Clearly, the provisions of this law cannot be fulfilled by lip-service, nor do they invite merely an imposition of still another layer of bureaucracy. The Act is a charter and a mandate under which vocational educators can set their house in order with support and information from higher levels of government.

As a second step vocational educators can change recruitment and admission practices and policies. Over the next few years, the Office of Civil Rights in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare will be carefully examining enrollments in vocational schools, courses, and programs. It will be joined by the Lawyer's Committee for Equal Rights Under the Law, funded by the Carnegie and Ford Foundations, which will be looking at the same problem. Recruitment policies--where and how prospective students are recruited--will most likely be a special focus of these investigations.

A third effort vocational educators can make is toward improving guidance and counseling efforts. Counselors have a particularly important role. They can either reinforce sex-role stereotypes that narrow occupational choices or they can encourage students to think more broadly about their educational and occupational decisions. For example, standardized tests, particularly career-interest inventories, should be interpreted in ways that are fair to both sexes and used as tools to expand the career possibilities explored by both girls and boys. Counselors will be made aware of these problems and of the ways they can bring about change only through inservice and preservice training.

The education and work group of the National Institute of Education has funded the development of many excellent materials that are now available for such training, including *Sex Fairness in Career Guidance: A Learning Kit*, *New Career Options for Women: A Counselor's Sourcebook*, and two films with teacher's and students' guides.

Fourth, vocational educators can revise curricular materials and teaching practices. An NIE-funded study found that most career-education materials examined were sex-biased. The Educational Products Information Exchange Institute, the contractor for this study, developed a simple checklist to assess sex bias and some specific ways to counter it. The checklist is available from the Educational Products Information Exchange Institute, 463 West Street, New York, NY 10014.

A fifth strategy would be to increase the number of female vocational administrators and qualified women teachers in male-dominated courses and male teachers in female-dominated fields. Although women faculty dominate the traditionally female vocational subjects, they are all but absent in other vocational programs--agricultural, technical, trade, and industrial. At administrative levels, women are present in only token numbers. There is only one woman state director of vocational education. Fewer than 20 percent of the national and state vocational education advisory council members are women. Training and placement programs need to be mounted immediately to increase the pool of qualified women and to see that they are placed in teaching and administrative positions commensurate with their skills and experience. The development of such programs should be a major role for the new National Center for Vocational Education.

Finally, vocational educators can continue important research and development efforts on women in vocational education. Continued research and development is sorely needed not only on the problems facing women in choosing and entering careers and in progressing in them, but also on interventions that will ease their transition from school to work and make more successful their later labor-market experiences. Four specific areas need immediate attention. One is the impact of working women on family life. As women take an equal share of the high-paying jobs, two questions will demand answers: Will the income difference between poor and better-off families increase? Will male unemployment increase? Studies will also be needed on nonprofessional women who make up over 80 percent of women in the labor force. Since the 1920s, research in this field has declined to a point where in recent years there has not been a single book devoted to the social and economic problems of these women.

A third subject that needs more research is avocational interests, which, studies already suggest, can be important to people's career choices. Vocational educators should be working with elementary and junior high-school students in the schools and through youth groups (4H, YMCA and YWCA, Girl and Boy Scouts) to broaden and deepen the opportunities to explore nontraditional roles. Boys in particular need to feel more comfortable in helping roles, while much work needs to be done in encouraging girls to assume leadership positions and better use their mechanical and technical aptitudes. Further, vocational educators need to work more closely with parents to inform them of trade and technical job opportunities so that they will not inadvertently discourage their youngsters from pursuing nontraditional avocational and vocational interests.

Since vocational educators are directly concerned with the educational goal of preparing individuals for work, they have an obligation to work toward eliminating the negative effects of practices in the home and early school that lock individuals into traditional male or female stereotyped occupational roles. Their efforts should also be extended against those policies and practices of the work community which overtly or covertly discriminate against either sex.

One NIE response to intervening in the socialization process is a new children's television series, now under development at the public television station in Los Angeles. The series, aimed at children in grades 4-6 and their parents and teachers, is intended to reduce the limiting effect that sex roles may have on the development of interests and preferences, which in turn affect educational and occupational decisions.

Vocational educators should also take the lead in expanding cooperative relationships with unions and employers in order to help women find jobs and take part in exploring career possibilities, especially in nontraditional fields.

A third way vocational educators can intervene is by exercising leadership. They could take the lead in prodding federal, state, and local officials to engage in public discussion of important issues relevant to the social revolution now taking place. They could, for instance, support the establishment of a National Commission on Women and Work, which would place special emphasis on the needs and aspirations of America's nonprofessional female worker--the clerk, the saleswoman, and the service and blue-collar woman--those who make up over 80 percent of working women.

One reason for such a national commission is that these women, who are vocational education's constituency, have largely been ignored in most public discussions on the role of women today. The focus during the last decade has almost exclusively been on the middle-class, upwardly mobile educated woman. The voice of women's liberation was her voice and spoke of her need to fulfill herself, to compete and to succeed in a man's world. These voices broke the barriers by writing the books, making the speeches, filming the shows, and editing the magazines that have made her middle-class male counterpart begin to understand her needs and ambitions.

It is time for the voice of her less educated sister to be heard. Although a national commission is no panacea and lacks the luster of a presentation like *Roots*, it can generate public awareness of the nonprofessional, working woman's plight; it can stimulate legislative and administrative initiatives that address her special problems; it can identify research and development activities that might help her break out of existing patterns of job stereotyping and improve her own self-image.

The most important and difficult single barrier in eliminating sex stereotyping and segregation is attitude. Most women and men have at one time or another believed that there are occupations that should be held by only one sex, that women are inherently less competent than men, that women cannot successfully supervise men or other women, that if women with young children go to work the family will inevitably disintegrate.

Fifteen years ago the civil-rights movement faced similar attitudinal barriers in the struggle for equity under the law. Those barriers by and large have been toppled, revealing how flimsy and meaningless they were and how impotent against the forces of learning, living, and working. Dare women hope that the attitudinal barriers to their equity are similarly vulnerable?

President Carter told the United Nations General Assembly: "The basic thrust of human affairs points toward a more universal demand for fundamental human rights. The United States has a historical birthright to be associated with this process."

Certainly, sex fairness is a fundamental human right.

RESOURCES ON ELIMINATING SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION[1]

The following annotated items were selected for their usefulness to vocational educators and counselors in program planning, preservice, inservice, and classroom use. An availability statement or contact address is listed with each item. Items listed in the ERIC system are available in either microfiche (MF) or hard copy (HC) from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS), P.O. Box 190, Arlington, VA 22210. The resource list is organized by the type of item and subheaded by subject area.

STATE AND LOCAL PROJECTS

Career Development Centers. Contact: Otho Jones, District of Columbia Public Schools, Room 1001, 415 12th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20004, (202) 724-4178. Career advisors were used in conjunction with Sex Equality in Guidance Opportunities (SEGO) trainers and vocational counselors to increase the career options of female students. The project staff worked with employers to initiate female work-study arrangements in nontraditional programs.

Eli Whitney Vocational High School. Contact: Nathan Mayron, Principal, 257 North 6th St., Brooklyn, NY 11211, (212) 287-7658. An innovative exploratory program is being offered during the ninth grade. Every student works at an introductory level in 10 of the 15 vocational shop areas. Guidance procedures are designed to eliminate sex bias in occupational training choice.

New Opportunities in Vocational Education. Contact: Frederick Frank, Educational Administration Center, Northern Illinois University, Dekalb, IL 60115, (815) 753-1463. Ten females and/or members of some minority group will be recruited, trained and placed in vocational administrative positions. Existing competency-based graduate programs will be used in training. Final report and project products will be available in the fall of 1977.

New Pioneers Project to Eliminate Sex Bias in Occupational Education. Contact: Amanda Smith, Division of Equal Education, State Department of Education, Raleigh, NC 27611, (919) 733-3551. A strategic model has been developed for changing the education system to accommodate a wider variety of educational and occupational choices for women and men. An inservice program was used to initiate state and local planning to change occupational education programs and structure to accommodate the needs and interests of female and male students. Limited numbers of resource materials are available upon request.

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[1] Permission to reprint granted by The Center for Research in Vocational Education, The Ohio State University, 1960 Kenny Road, Columbus, Ohio 43210. (614) 486-3655.

Project HEAR (Human Educational Awareness Resource). Contact: Robert B. Francis, Coordinator for Dissemination, Department of Education, 225 West State St., P.O. Box 2019, Trenton, NJ 08608, (609) 292-4469. Three multimedia career awareness learning units were developed for the primary, intermediate, and secondary levels. The units emphasize eliminating sex stereotyping and are being installed throughout New Jersey.

Project to Eliminate Sex Bias in Vocational Education. Contact: Deborah Dillon, Project Coordinator, Arizona Department of Education, 1535 West Jefferson, Phoenix, AZ 85007, (602) 271-4361. A list of resource materials for vocational educators in Arizona has been assembled. Inservice workshops are being planned for teachers and administrators. A past state-wide awareness activity is described in *Clinics for Administrators of Women in Occupational Education. Final Report 1974-1975* by Barkley, Manning and Wooldridge. (ED 122 130 available from EDRS MF $0.83-HC $4.67 plus postage.)

A Qualitative Incremental Improvement to Reduce Sex-Role Stereotyping in the Career Choices of Junior High Students. Contact: Robert E. Blum, Coordinator, Career Education, or Robert Evans, Resource Specialist, Language Arts, Jefferson County Public Schools, 1209 Quail St., Lakewood, CO 80215, (303) 234-7000. Program materials entitled *The Now and the Future* were developed for career exploration activities in Junior High grades during the 1976-1977 school year. Emphasis is placed on career exploration and eliminating sex stereotyping of occupations.

Sex Bias and Sex Discrimination in Vocational Education--Guilty or Not Guilty? Contact: Marge Harouff, Vocational Home Economics Department, State Department of Education, 301 Centennial Mall South, Lincoln, NE 68509, (402) 471-2476. Workshops were conducted during the summer of 1977 in a state-wide inservice training effort to eliminate sex stereotypes among home economics teachers and students. A learning activity package, containing self-evaluation materials, performance objectives, exercises in reviewing materials, and preparation of nonsexist classroom materials was used.

Sex Discrimination and Sex Stereotyping Project. Contact: Lois McGovern, Project Director, District 1916 Vo-Tech, 3300 Century Ave., White Bear Lake, MN 55110, (612) 770-2351. A list of actions to eliminate sex bias and stereotyping has been developed by a state-wide advisory council on women. The council reviewed vocational brochures for sexist language, art-work, and procedures for student inquiry and directed that changes be made in sex-biased material.

Special Vocational Needs of Women. Contact: Connie Beasley, Sex Equity Administrator, Illinois Office of Education, Department of Adult, Vocational & Technical Education, 100 North First St., Springfield, IL 62777, (207) 782-4620. This project began with a needs assessment; produced a field-tested five-lesson curriculum entitled *Expanding Career Horizons* for use in secondary classes; and developed a film *When I Grow Up...* on the process of stereotyping for use in awareness workshops with teachers, counselors and administrators. The curriculum will be disseminated and the film available for purchase by fall, 1977.

REPORTS AND PRODUCTS

Guidance and Career Exploration

Career Guidance Materials: Implications for Women's Career Development. Research and Development Series No. 97. Louise Vetter et al. The Center for Vocational Education, 1974, 90 p. (Available from: The Center for Vocational Education, The Ohio State University, 1960 Kenny Road, Columbus, OH 43210; $6.00 or EDRS MF$0.83-HC-$4.67 plus postage. ED 106 542.) A sex-role stereotyping content analysis was conducted of more than 9,500 pages and 1,850 illustrations of high school guidance materials. The report offers representative stereotyped and nonstereotyped quotations from the materials. The assessment instrument is appended.

Guidelines for Assessment of Sex Fairness in Career Interest Inventories. National Institute of Education, Washington, DC, 1974, 13 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC $1.67 plus postage. ED 098 314.) These guidelines resulted from a three-day workshop and address the diverse concerns of inventory users, respondents, authors, and publishers. They are grouped in three sections: recommendations on the form and content of the interest inventory; recommendations on the presentation and interpretation of materials, reporting scores, composition of criterion groups, investigation of validity of interest inventories, and provisions for updating; and discussion on the quality of interpretive information provided in the publishers' manual and supporting materials.

A Handbook for Workshops on Sex Equality in Education. Mary Ellen Verheyden-Hilliard. American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1976, 81 p. (Available from: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1607 New Hampshire Ave., NW, Washington, DC 20029. Free--quantities limited to one per customer, may be reproduced with proper credit.) This handbook contains resources and information for use in conducting workshops on sex equality in education. This is one of several technical assistance products generated by the Sex Equality in Guidance Opportunities Projects (SEGO). The Appendix contains the names and addresses of the 50 state SEGO trainers.

New Career Options for Women. Helen S. Farmer and Thomas E. Backer. Human Interaction Research Institute, 1977. Three volumes, 624 total pages. (Available from: Human Interaction Research Institute, Kirkeby Center, Suite 1120, 10889 Wilshire Blvd., Los Angeles, CA 90024, $25.48 for the set.) This publication contains three parts. *A Counselor's Sourcebook* (400 p., hard, $16.95) addresses counselors in educational institutions, public service agencies, and counselor educators. It lists resources, counseling strategies and ways to change stereotyped attitudes. *A Women's Guide* (96 p., soft, $4.95--bulk rate of 10 or more--$3.95) summarizes major topics covered in the sourcebook plus contains material for women returning to work. It may be used independently or as part of counseling. *A Selected Annotated Bibliography* (128 pp., hard, $9.95) contains 240 citations of books, journals, articles, and reports from economics, sociology, anthropology and psychology pertaining to women and work.

Reducing Sex Bias--Factors Affecting the Clients' View of the Use of Career Interest Inventories. Janice M. Birk. Aries Corporation, 1974, 49 p. (EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$2.06 plus postage. ED 095 367.) Research is reviewed relating to sex bias in use of interest inventories from the clients' view of the career exploration process. Manuals and interpretive materials have suggestions and implications which could have harmful effects on women clients. Corrective interventions are discussed.

Sex Fairness in Career Guidance: A Learning Kit. Abt Publications, 1975, 265 p. (Available from: Abt Publications, 55 Wheeler St., Cambridge, MA 02138, $15.00 plus shipping.) A self-administered curriculum for counselors, counselor educators, teachers, and students, this curriculum is organized into four chapters dealing with orientation to sex fairness, recommendations for a sex-fair career guidance program, sex-fair use and interpretation of interest inventories, and a resource guide. There are a variety of supplementary materials for duplication and use with the activities.

Sex Role Socialization and Employment Realities: Implications for Vocational Interest Measures. ACT Research Report No. 68. Dale J. Prediger, Nancy S. Cole. American College Testing Program, 1975, 14 p. (Available from: ACT Publications, American College Testing Program, P.O. Box 168, Iowa City, IA 52240. $1.00 prepaid or EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$1.67 plus postage. ED 112 271.) Reporting and validation procedures which minimize sex stereotypes are suggested. Career counseling problems arising from interests and current employment realities are discussed.

Women and the World of Work. A Career Education Resource Guide. Minnesota Guidance Series. Learning Opportunities Package G. Richard J. Thoni et al. Minnesota University, 1972, 36 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$2.06 plus postage. ED 128 550.) This package is designed to help students examine the significance of women and their relation to the world of work through the use of seven enabling objectives and related learning experiences. Activities related to the enabling objectives are appended.

Secondary Vocational Education Programs

Attempts to Overcome Sex Stereotyping in Vocational Education. Morgan V. Lewis et al. Institute for Research on Human Resources, 1976, 273 p. (Available from: The Institute for Research on Human Resources, The Pennsylvania State University, 407 Kern Graduate Building, University Park, PA 16802. $10.00 prepaid to The Pennsylvania State University.) School staff and students from eleven schools with five or more women enrolled in nontraditional courses were surveyed and interviewed. The report describes the various influences on career decisions of the students and makes recommendations for increasing participation in nontraditional courses.

Equal Vocational Education. Final Report. Jane Lerner et al. Houston Center for Human Resources, 1976, 99 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$4.67 plus postage. ED 133 464.) A model program was designed for increasing and maintaining female enrollment in nontraditional programs. This report describes the procedures used in awareness activities, active recruitment, and support counseling.

"A Facelift for Industrial Arts." Man/Society/Technology. Deborah D. Patterson. December 1974, Vol. 34, No. 3, pp. 85-86. This article describes a slide show depicting young women in industrial arts activities which can be used for recruiting more females into industrial arts classes. A script, suggestions for taking appropriate slides, and directions on putting the two together are included.

The Masculine Focus in Home Economics. Judy H. Dowell, Bonnie B. Greenwood. Home Economics Association, Washington, DC, 1975, 31 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$2.06 plus postage. ED 116 002.) This booklet suggests strategies for recruiting and teaching young men in home economics classes. There is an analysis of the "masculine image" and existing barriers, including teacher attitudes.

"Stamping Out Sex Stereotypes in North Carolina." American Vocational Journal. Amanda J. Smith. April 1976, Vol. 51, No. 4, pp. 30-33. This article describes the procedures used in the New Pioneers Project to eliminate sex stereotyping in North Carolina vocational education programs. These procedures include meeting with local directors of vocational education; awareness campaigns for parents, teachers, and students; the development of a media package; and recruitment of students into nontraditional vocational courses.

Women in the Work Force: Development and Field Testing of Curriculum Materials. Final Report. Louise Vetter, Barbara J. Sethney. The Center for Vocational Education, The Ohio State University, 1972, 62 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$3.50 plus postage. ED 072 175.) Curriculum materials, and associated measures of knowledge, attitudes, and plans were developed and pilot tested with 100 7th, 9th, and 11th grade girls to aid girls in considering future alternatives and making plans for labor force participation and adult female roles.

Postsecondary Recruitment and Training Programs

The Minority Women Employment Program: A National Demonstration Project to Facilitate Entry of Minority Women into Managerial, Professional, and Technical Occupations, Vol. I and II. Robert W. Glover, Paula S. Greenfield. The Center for the Study of Human Resources, The University of Texas at Austin, 1976, 88 p., 153 p. (Available from: National Technical Information Service, U.S. Department of Commerce, 5285 Port Royal Road, Springfield, VA 22151. Vol. I: NTIS No. PB 264940/AS, $5.00; Vol. II: NTIS No. PB 264941/AS, $4.50.) The outreach model was used to locate jobs, to recruit qualified minority women, and to prepare those women for employment in managerial, professional, and technical occupations. Project conclusions and recommendations are given. Volume II presents demographic data on all women placed in seven demonstration sites.

Non-Traditional Job Opportunities. Fran Chaffin, Program Director, Lower Columbia College, 1600 Maple, Longview, WA 98632, (206) 577-2393. This program prepares qualified women for nontraditional occupations. During a series of eight to ten sessions, the women are given job readiness assistance and job and/or training experiences in coordination with other agencies or resources. Services offered by the program include assessment of each applicant to determine nontraditional interests and aptitudes, counseling, preparation for and referral to training or employment, developing jobs and placing enrollees, and follow-up on all women enrolled as to their progress and problems.

Steps to Opening the Skilled Trades to Women. Women's Bureau, Department of Labor, Washington, DC, 1974, 9 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$1.67 plus postage. ED 099 546.) This booklet explains that employers' and unions' attitude toward and acceptance in practice of the equal capacity of women to function in the skilled trades and other apprentice-type jobs depend on their knowledge of facts, actual experience, and understanding of equal opportunity laws. Steps are outlined to increase the employment of women in the skilled trades and to better utilize women workers when they have been hired. Actions that unions can take to open skilled trades to women, advice to women on accelerating their entry into skilled trades and special programs now underway to help women enter the skilled trades are described.

A Study of the Factors Influencing the Participation of Women in Non-Traditional Occupations in Postsecondary Area Vocational Training Schools, Vol. I. Roslyn D. Kane et al. Rj Associates, Inc., Arlington, VA, 1976, 189 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$10.03 plus postage. ED 132 429.) The characteristics of women who choose nontraditional training programs and their problems and counseling programs are discussed. Women in non-traditional, traditional and mixed programs are compared.

WENDI (Women's Education Development Incentive). Kay Elledge, Program Director, Office of Continuing Education for Women, Brevard Community College, 1519 Clearlake Road, Cocoa, FL 32922, (305) 632-1111. The program is designed for disadvantaged women forced to make the transition from the role of homemaker to wage earner. It provides support courses, counseling, and practical job experiences. An information newsletter is available outlining the history of the project, funding, impact, staffing, public relations, minority outreach, curriculum, and specific contact people on the staff available to provide further information.

"Why Not a Woman?" *American Education*. Janice Sedaka. December 1975, Vol. 2, No. 10, pp. 11-15. This article describes the Women in New Careers (WINC) Project conducted by CONSAD Research Corporation, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. WINC was designed to develop and test a model career development program for women enrolled in Comprehensive Employment Training Act (CETA) skills centers. Five test sites offered training to underemployed and unemployed women in occupations traditionally open only to men. Materials were developed for recruitment, orientation, self-concept enhancement, and support counseling.

Women in Apprenticeship--Why Not? Final Report. Patricia Mapp. Wisconsin State Department of Industry, Labor and Human Relations, 1973, 268 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$14.05 plus postage. ED 086 880.) The project attempted to isolate, analyze and minimize barriers to the participation of women in the skilled trades through awareness campaigns, personal contacts, and surveys; the changes initiated because of these actions; and recommendations for future action. Copies of promotional material and specific strategies for recruiting, maintaining, and placing women in apprenticeship placements are included. Manpower Research Monograph No. 33 *Women in Apprenticeship--Why Not?* by Norma Briggs is a 34 page summary of insights gained and changes catalyzed throughout the three-year project. It is available from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402 for $0.75.

General Information and Evaluation

Complying with Title IX: Implementing Institutional Self-Evaluation. Martha Matthews, Shirley McCune. Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education, 1976, 141 p. (Available from: Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education, The National Foundation for the Improvement of Education, 1201 Sixteenth St., NW, Washington, DC 20036. $3.00 prepaid.) The implications of Title IX are discussed. Self-evaluation outlines and action checklists for specific educational programs including vocational education and counseling are provided. Also included are guidelines for institutional evaluation.

A Model to Retrain Women Teachers and Skilled Women as Teachers in Non-Traditional Vocational Programs. Roslyn Kane et al. Rj Associates, Washington, DC, 1977. (Available from: Mary Lovell, Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education, Office of Education, 400 Maryland Ave., SW, Rm. 4147, Washington, DC 20202, (202) 245-8176. Single copies free.) This handbook offers two retraining models: a general model which covers certification requirements, characteristics of the women and the time required to attain skill levels; and a conceptual model which offers five designs for specific types of programs from industrial arts to agriculture. Also included are planning guidelines applications to an industrial arts program and techniques and programs to respond to special needs such as child care and counseling.

Moving Women into Educational Administration. Bernard W. Kaye. 107th American Association of School Administrators Annual Convention, 1975, 23 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$1.67 plus postage. ED 105 549.) The author outlines past and present imbalances to rigid sex-role stereotypes and offers specific suggestions for moving women into educational administration.

The Vocational Preparation of Women: Report and Recommendations of the Secretary's Advisory Committee on the Rights and Responsibilities of Women. JoAnn M. Steiger, Sara Cooper. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. 1975, 76 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$4.67 plus postage. ED 120 402 or Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402, $1.55.) This report gives Education Subcommittee findings regarding the impact of federal vocational education legislation and HEW policies on women. Appended materials list research and development projects dealing with careers and vocational education for women under states and HEW.

Women in Vocational Education: Project Baseline Supplemental Report. Marilyn Steele. Northern Arizona University, 1974, 154 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$8.69 plus postage. ED 099 689.) This report reviews the current status of women in vocational education to determine if there is a cause-effect relationship between school practices and limited job options for women in the world of work. Recommendations are made to bring about equal educational opportunities in vocational education.

Women and Work. R&D Monograph 46. Patricia C. Sexton, U.S. Department of Labor, 1977, 71 p. (Available from: Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402, $2.20.) Data is presented on male-female earnings gap, women's labor market experience, research on women's employment problems, upgrading women's employment, manpower programs and women, [illegible]ernment and women workers, and implications for future programs. One chapter reviews major recruitment, training, and placement projects. Several chapters have implications for preparing women workers, counseling procedures, and adult programs.

REFERRALS AND REFERENCES

Organizations

The Center for Vocational Education. The Ohio State University, 1960 Kenny Road, Columbus, OH 43210, (614) 486-3655. The Center focused on the needs and interests of women in the areas of guidance and career development. A curriculum unit for career planning for women; an assessment of career materials and the implications for women's career development; a research study on career patterns of women; and several information analysis, review, and synthesis papers have been produced. Current efforts include producing a parent handbook on the career implications of sex stereotyping; developing a model for upgrading underemployed women in business and education; and the development of two training packages for the new vocational education "sex equity" personnel.

Center for Women's Opportunities. American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, 1 DuPont Circle, NW, Suite 410, Washington, DC 20036, (202) 293-7050. The Center is currently assessing the status of women in two-year colleges in regards to opportunities to pursue technical and semi-professional skills. The final report will offer recommendations for counseling, financial aid, placement, admission, and training for women in postsecondary schools. A selected bibliography and newsletter are available.

Ellis Associates. P.O. Box 466, College Park, MD 20740, (301) 864-7600. This organization conducts staff development activities addressing sex-role stereotyping and sex bias in vocational education. They have designed three training packages for use in inservice and preservice training of vocational educators to help expand nontraditional opportunities in vocational education.

The Federal Education Project. Lawyer's Committee for Civil Rights Under the Law, Suite 520, 733 15th St., NW, Washington, DC 20005, (202) 628-6700. Technical assistance and information is provided to individuals and organizations concerned about equal opportunity in vocational education. They produce a monthly newsletter containing articles on current developments affecting sex bias in vocational education, especially in the areas of federal legislation, rule-making and enforcement activities. Future activities include publication of a pamphlet outlining the provisions of the 1976 Vocational Education Act Amendment, a handbook on model programs for eliminating bias and stereotyping; and a report on the quality and content of state five-year plans for vocational education.

L. Miranda and Associates. 4701 Willard Ave., Suite 102, Chevy Chase, MD 20015, (301) 656-8684. This organization has implemented a "Business and Management Development Program for Minority Women" to train Hispanic women in management techniques. They conducted a conference on "Non-traditional Occupations for Women of the Hemisphere--the U.S. Experience" sponsored by the U.S. Delegate to the Inter-American Commission of Women of the Organization of American States and the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor. The report was prepared in both English and Spanish.

New Directions for Young Women. 2201 North Country Club, Tucscon, AZ 85716, (602) 327-4261. New Directions explores the impact of sex-role stereotyping and its effects on possible career and employment options for young women. They present and sponsor workshops for young women and adults; provide consultation services for community agencies and schools; present workshops on sex-role stereotyping, non-sexist curriculum, and sex bias for school personnel. The staff is currently developing a program called the Sex Stereotyping Awareness Tool (SSAT) to increase educators' and counselors' awareness and knowledge of the special vocational needs of young women.

PEER (Project on Equal Education Rights). 1029 Vermont Ave., NW, Suite 800, Washington, DC 20005, (202) 332-7337. PEER monitors and publicizes enforcement progress and problems as federal and local programs and schools implement Title IX. They provide information to individuals and organizations, a newsletter, free publications on resources to eliminate sexism in schools; reprints of articles, and information papers on women.

The Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education. National Foundation for the Improvement of Education, 1201 Sixteenth St., NW, Room 701, Washington, DC 20036, (202) 833-5426. This organization has produced several publications dealing with the elimination of sex discrimination, sex bias, and sex stereotyping in education and publishes a newsletter, *Research/Action Notes*, containing information on activities and resources relating to the alleviation of sexism in elementary-secondary education. Currently, they are developing training materials for vocational educators to eliminate sex-role stereotyping in vocational education.

Steiger, Fink, Kosecoff, Inc., 1313 Dolly Madison Blvd., Rm. 127, McLean, VA 22101, (703) 893-5715; or 9060 Santa Monica Blvd., Suite 108, Los Angeles, CA 90069, (213) 276-1315. This organization conducts staff training workshops on sex fairness in vocational education. They have developed staff development materials, curriculum materiasl for secondary school students and have conducted research and evaluation projects. They are currently involved in the Vocational Equity Study, a national assessment of sex bias and sex stereotyping in vocational education.

Rj Associates. 1018 Wilson Blvd., Arlington, VA 22209, (703) 524-3360. This organization conducts and publishes research on women in vocational education. They have completed a study on the factors influencing the participation of women in non-traditional vocational programs in postsecondary schools. They are completing a similar study of students at the secondary level, developing a model to retrain women teachers and skilled women as teachers in non-traditional vocational programs and conducting a study of women's participation in apprenticeship programs.

Women on Words and Images. P.O. Box 2163, Princeton, NJ 08540, (609) 921-8653. This group has reviewed textbook and curriculum material in elementary and secondary grades for sexism. They have published several reports and guidelines for evaluation of texts. Guidelines to evaluate sex stereotyping in vocational education material will be available in the fall, 1977.

Women's Bureau. Employment Standards Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, DC 20210, (202) 523-6611. The Bureau has produced many reports on the status of women in the labor force; booklets, pamphlets, and handbooks for women, educators, and employers; project reports on women and employers; and project reports on women and training. A publication list is available.

Young Women's Company. 2813 South Sixth Ave., Tucson, AZ 85713, (602) 622-1146. The Company is a vocational counseling and nontraditional job training organization working with young women 14-18 years old. The clients attend classes on value clarification, assertiveness training, and basic job finding skills; then register for vocational classes. Independent living skills groups are available for support. Job placement is part of the program.

Bibliographies

Exemplary Strategies for Elimination of Sex Bias in Vocational Education Programs. Final Report. Sheila M. Maher. Human Resources Management, Inc., Washington, DC, 1976. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$3.50 plus postage. ED 133 523.) Annotated descriptions of projects and strategies for eliminating sex bias in vocational education are provided. Four categories of resources are listed: individuals and organizations, materials, projects, and studies.

Women in Non-Traditional Occupations: A Bibliography. U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education, 1976, 189 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$10.03 plus postage. ED 133 460.) This provides resources for promoting the training of females in nontraditional areas. Included are overview materials, materials on women in both nontraditional skilled/vocational and professional occupations, resources for additional information and sources for materials.

NON-PRINT MEDIA

American Man: Tradition and Change. Butterick Publishing, 161 Sixth Ave., New York, NY 10013, 1976. 12 minutes each, color, sound filmstrips. $45.00 purchase. This unit of two sound filmstrips introduces the concept of sex-role stereotyping to high school students. Part I, "Traditions in Question," explores some of the traditional qualities expected in men. Part II, "Living with Change," uses interviews with both males and females, adults and students to examine some of the problems confronting men because of their role training. A 16-page Teachers' Guide accompanies the unit.

American Women: New Opportunities. Butterick Publishing, 161 Sixth Ave., New York, NY 10013, 1976. 12 minutes each, color, sound filmstrips. $45.00 purchase. This unit of two sound filmstrips helps high school students explore sex-role stereotyping. Part I, "Who are You?" briefly reviews the traditional roles of women and options for the future. Part II, "Who Can You Be?" confronts the problem that even though new opportunities exist, prejudice--both external and internal--still exists. Five women in nontraditional occupations look at how to shape their lives for the most rewarding and satisfying arrangement.

Anything You Want to Be. New Day Films, P.O. Box 315, Franklin Lakes, NJ 07417, 1971. 8 minutes, b/w sound, 16 mm. $115.00 purchase, $17.00 rental. This is a short, fast-paced film showing how society subtly socializes women into accepted stereotypes. The main character is a bright high school girl who is told she can be anything she wants to be, but receives signals that in reality she can't. This film would be useful with junior high students through adults for discussion about societal sex stereotypes.

Different Folks. Agency for Instructional Television, 1111 West 17th St., Bloomington, IN 47401, 1975. 15 minutes, color, sound 16 mm. $180.00 purchase. This film is one of a series of fifteen films called *Self Incorporated* aimed at helping 11 to 13 year olds cope with emotional and social problems. *Different Folks* deals with sex-role identification in a changing world from a boy's point of view. The story explores what happens in a family where the mother works outside the home as a veterinarian, the father works at home as an illustrator, and the children share in the housework. A teachers' guide outlines questions for discussion and follow-up activities.

Free to Choose. Film Fare Communications, 10900 Ventura Blvd., Studio City, CA 91604, 1974. 16 minutes, color, sound 16 mm. $220.00 purchase, $20.00 rental. This film was produced for junior high to adult audiences. It begins with a brief history of women's rights and social legislation, then focuses on a man in early childhood education, a woman who is head of an architectural urban planning division, a female homemaker, and a working couple with a small child who share household duties and decision making. The purpose of this film is to encourage choice of work and lifestyle based on interests and skills rather than on traditional male-female roles.

Jobs and Gender. Guidance Associates, 757 Third Ave., New York, NY 10017, 1971. 18 minutes, color, sound filmstrips. $48.50 purchase. This two-filmstrip unit presents people who have crossed the sex-work barrier such as a female carpenter, a male nurse, a female reporter, and a male kindergarten teacher. The program challenges junior and senior high school students to examine their own biases and encourages them to explore what they really would like to be. A twenty-nine page Discussion Guide accompanies the unit.

Looking at Tomorrow...What Will You Choose? Churchill Films, 662 North Robertson Blvd., Los Angeles, CA 90069. 20 minutes, color, sound 16 mm. $210.00 purchase. This film is targeted to elementary, junior high, and senior high students and gives a documentary treatment of seven young women at their jobs: lawyer/congressperson, bricklayer, violin maker, telephone frameperson, employment representative, self-employed artist/business owner, air traffic controller, and animal nutritionist. The dialogue focuses on choice, preparation and satisfaction. A teachers' guide presents questions for discussion.

Male and Female Roles. Cornet Instructional Media, 369 W. Erie St., Chicago, IL 60610, 1975. 9 minutes each, color, sound filmstrips. $102.00 purchase. The unit contains six color sound filmstrips entitled "The Stereotypes," "How Stereotypes Evolved," "How They Are Learned," "Emerging Dissatisfactions," "New Perspectives," and "How Aware Are You?" These can be used as an entire unit or each separately to help people from junior high through adults to understand the sociological process of sex stereotyping. A sixteen-page Teachers' Guide gives questions for discussion and extra activities.

Never Underestimate the Power of a Woman. Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction, University of Wisconsin-Extension, 1327 University Ave., Madison, WI 53706, 1972. 20 minutes, color, sound 16 mm. $200.00 purchase, $15.50 rental. This film was produced as part of the federally funded project "Women in Apprenticeship--Why Not?" It explores and explodes the myths about women workers by interviewing employers of women and women workers who work at various technical and skilled jobs. The film is geared toward adult audiences--mature women, employers, unions, and vocational adult educators and counselors.

Non-Traditional Careers for Women. Pathescope Educational Media, Inc., 71 Weyman Ave., New Rochelle, NY 10802, 1974. 26 minutes, color, sound filmstrips. $46.00 purchase. This unit contains two sound filmstrips designed to introduce junior and senior high school students and adults to nontraditional careers for women. Part I briefly reviews the history of women's role in the U.S. job market from the 1800's to the present. Part II focuses on particular women working in nontraditional careers, opportunities for training, and the diverse job market for women. This unit has a 21-page Teacher's Manual.

Sexism in School--What We Can Do. Educational Activities, Inc., 1937 Grand Ave., Baldwin, NY 11510, 1976. 18 minutes, color, sound filmstrip. $14.95 purchase. This kit contains a filmstrip, cassette tape, and teacher's guide for use with teachers, administrators, parents and counselors. After some consciousness-raising about the meaning of stereotyping, the results of several well-known studies are discussed, several teaching aides are illustrated and specific suggestions for starting a positive program to combat sexism in school are made. The teacher's guide contains a script; sources of the aides mentioned in the filmstrip; Title IX information; a resource list of books, booklets, publications, and materials; and suggestions for combatting sexism in school.

Women at Work: Choice and Challenge. Guidance Associates, 757 Third Ave., New York, NY 10017, 1975. 18 minutes, color, sound fimstrips. $48.50 purchase. This unit contains two color, sound filmstrips designed for high school students and adults, to explore the changing role of women in the labor force and alternate lifestyles available to women. Part 1 summarizes the development of women's work roles throughout important periods in United States history. Part 2 interviews a number of women, spouses, children, and co-workers to provide personal insights into the effects of work on women. A 40-page Discussion Guide accompanies the units.

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III.B.5.

"The Politics of Training Teachers in Schools"

III. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURES AND PRACTICES FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

B. Objective: Identify school policies and structures which reinforce sex stereotypes.

5. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy is related to all Goal VI strategies which address change process.

Instructions

a. Prior to this session, distribute copies of Dale Mann's "The Politics of Training Teachers in Schools" to all participants. Also distribute handout "Discussion Questions" with the article and ask participants to be prepared to discuss them.

b. For the discussion session, divide the group into subgroups of four to six people. Use the discussion questions that were previously distributed.

c. Summarize in total group

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour (for reading article prior to the session)
1 hour (discussion time during session)

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Discussion Questions for 'The Politics of Training Teachers in Schools'"
Attached Article: "The Politics of Training Teachers in Schools" (Mann, 1976)

Outcome Criterion:

Describe two of the five phases of change in a paragraph and state what you would do to maximize success in each phase.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS FOR "THE POLITICS OF TRAINING TEACHERS IN SCHOOLS"

1. What factors account for the difficulty of accomplishing change in school systems?

2. What characteristics lead to success at each of the five phases (i.e., initiation, implementation, adaptation, continuation, dissemination)?

3. Describe a change at your school as it progressed through the five phases. (This could be done in groups of four people with total group discussion later or in one large group.)

4. Based on the article and your own personal experiences, what observations can you make about the relationship of the bureaucracy to a change project?

5. What new ideas or questions did the article raise for you?

6. What guidelines for action are implied in the comparison of the most successful cases versus the least successful cases? (Have the group discuss and list tentative guidelines on the board.)

7. How do these guidelines apply to your school?

*THE POLITICS OF TRAINING TEACHERS IN SCHOOLS**

by Dale Mann

In the recent past, it has been relatively easy to effect school reform through teacher turnover and recruitment. As long as teacher mobility remained high, a principal could count on replacing perhaps as much as one-fifth of the staff in a year. But now and for the foreseeable future, mobility will be greatly constricted by the teacher surplus, the availability of maternity leaves, the need for multiple incomes per family, and the effects of unionization. School reform must now be accomplished through existing personnel. More than ever before, those who seek to change schools must change teachers while they are working in the schools. The euphemism for that is staff development.

The results reported here were developed as part of The Rand Corporation's study of United States Office of Education-supported change-agent programs. The analysis and the conclusions in the current paper are the result of a secondary analysis of the data and are the author's sole responsibility.[1] The field sites selected for study were located in all parts of the country and in communities ranging from a rural hamlet to a megalopolis. The field team conducted 50 to 100 interviews in each place visited. The number of schools visited in each place varied from five to twenty. Interviews began at the top of the system and followed the project down through the administrative hierarchy to the teachers in the various schools. This article concentrates on describing a process of (1) initiation, (2) implementation, (3) partisan mutual adaptation, (4) continuation, and (5) dissemination/diffusion which has been generalized from the data. It uses illustrations as often as possible but necessarily concentrates on a process description, not on the description of multiple contexts. The reader is invited to compare this analysis with his or her own experience and with the case materials available from The Rand Corporation.[2]

THE INITIATION PHASE

Why and how did the projects begin? Where did the idea come from? How much support was necessary from how many people?

The literature on planned change stresses the importance of a high level of felt need for change. The idea occurs in two different forms: (1) the "goal seeking" or "rational" model in which the impetus for change comes from a desire to move to a preferred future; and (2) a

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*From: Teacher's College Record, 1976, 77(3), pp. 323-338. Permission to reprint granted by Teachers College Record.

"problem solving" orientation in which dissatisfaction with current situations prompts a definitive remedy. *None* of these projects were initiated in response to a significantly felt need to change among school staff. In fact, it was always assumed that the objects of the project's efforts, those people who were to be "developed" (changed) would resist that effort, deny the project's utility, and otherwise be obstacles to change. Most projects came into being because of a small cell of persons who operated independently of or in opposition to the wishes of district superordinates and the trainee group as well.

Most school districts store their needs in a bottomless pit. When outside money appears, the district fishes around the pit until it finds a need that matches the announced purposes of the soft money. That need is then elevated to the status of a priority in order to demonstrate the district's commitment, and not incidentally in order to capture the bucks. The process is exactly why so many districts object to having their programs jerked around by program-specific, rather than general or bloc, assistance. The point here is that the process invalidates the central tenet of a district-based goal-seeking model of change. From the federal government's viewpoint, the opportunism evident in this process is probably useful since it demonstrates district responsiveness (at least initially) to a federal agenda. Because it is less grand, "problem solving" seems to be a slightly more accurate characterization of the motives for initiation. But the "problem solving" approach was one in which districts moved not so much toward any carefully conceptualized future, as away from whatever problems were most pressing and which could be ameliorated (note, not "solved") by someone else's money.[3]

The planning activity is a noticeable departure from the synoptic rational model. If the practice of searching for alternatives implies a conscious search for the different options available in some universe of potential solutions prior to initiating the project, then there simply was no such search. The alternatives considered were those that were immanent in the experience or education of the small group of project initiators. Planning in the sense of programming or scheduling might have been provoked by the requirements of federal grants. We did find a relationship between extensive planning and the success of the projects, but the explanation for that lay not in intrinsic value of the planning activity but in the fact that the most successful projects were also the most ambitious, complicated and thus demanding of good planning.

Since most districts now recognize that they can take virtually any amount of someone else's money to attempt almost any task, they regard the proposal process fatalistically. But it is impossible to predict the development and results of an untested intervention in a complex and unknown behavioral system. Only in trivial (and uninteresting) circumstances can there be a behaviorally adequate prior specification of the sort necessary to support detailed planning (and the subsequent accountability for the realization of that plan). Two important consequences follow. First, in most districts the possibility of good planning is prematurely deprecated; second, the resulting cynicism causes people to fall far short of the achievements they might otherwise realize.

Widespread participation in planning is supposed to be a *sine qua non* of successful projects. But since the projects were designed to improve purportedly deficient behavior, asking those needy people to become involved would have been embarrassing. In no case did target groups select themselves as the focus of change. In general, they were unaware of what was to happen to them, or if they knew of the projects' existence, its goals were stated in such softy-lofty terms that no one could object. Opposition increased as the specific identification of the trainee group (e.g., high school math teachers, special ed curriculum developers, etc.) increased. Precise purposes, although good from a planning standpoint, increased conflict.

The best summary characterization of the initiation process in these cases was (a) the recognition of some outside resources which might (b) be applied to an emergent generalized need for change in someone else's behavior as determined by a small group of middle-level people, who then (c) plunged into the first project treatment that satisfied them and the funding agency.

THE IMPLEMENTATION PHASE

Project Characteristics. Implementation begins when the project settles down to the hard work of trying to influence teacher behavior. But the vast majority of teachers believed in what they were already doing, not in what some newly arrived change-agent project wanted them to do. The teachers' convictions may not be firmly held or clearly displayed, but their own professional behavior remained a basic point of orientation. That situation created a dilemma for all projects. The more in need of change was the group, the more important it was that they not be invidiously labeled.[4] Thus, most projects used public goals that were more than usually amorphous.

We also considered how far the project's goals diverged from those of the district. On the face of it, a set of operational goals at odds with those of the larger district is not too much to expect from a change-oriented activity. We found instead a strong need for protective coloration. To survive, it was necessary for the teachers to believe that the project represented only a relatively small change in their existing practices. Schools are continuing organizations and their preproject methods are a sort of distribution of benefits and power and are thus the objects of fierce loyalty. Although to the outsider preexisting goals may seem to be meaningless generalities, they have frequently been the focus of bitter conflict, and only painfully resolved. A direct challenge to those goals might stop the change-agent challenger by destroying access and by mobilizing the opposition. The notion of change as an organizational *summum bonum* which is held in such esteem by various levels above the local school is, in fact, a kiss-of-death handicap in the testing ground for innovation. Since many of these same schools and districts are the most in need of change, the committed change agent is presented with an interesting choice between candor and effectiveness.

Where the goals of the project included attention to strongly held cultural values (attitudes about race, ethnic pluralism, student responsibilities), the projects tended to concentrate on the supposedly more neutral and technical aspects of pedagogy and consistently avoided engaging in controversies. Thus, projects that started out to deal with race ended up working on instructional techniques.

The amount of change attempted is another goal-related characteristic. Even though they could not broadcast their intentions, the best projects set out to make a big difference, to help people to depart substantially and radically from their previous patterns. Less successful projects contributed more to organizational maintenance than to organizational change. Big change aspirations seemed to be functional because they provided their participants with early motivation and commitment and because when the inevitable compromises came (see "Adaptation" below), ambitious projects could still salvage a significant portion of their purpose. A second measure of the ambition of a project is the extent or "critical mass" of its intended changes. Here the strong social sanctions of the schools as a small band of professionals exerted itself very strongly. An occasional maverick could buck those sanctions and implement the changed behavior in isolation. But mostly schools singled out these ratebusters and deprecated or ostracized them until they regressed to the mean. Change is frequently an indictment of existing practice and of existing practitioners; in its field reality, it is not a state devoutly to be sought, nor is it a clinical, bloodless, consensual process. It was resisted by teachers who were threatened by it. For these reasons, it was important to succeed with enough of a school building's staff to provide a potentially self-contained unit. Allowing for defections, backsliding, and partial implementation, that usually meant not fewer than 20-25 percent of the school's staff had to be thoroughly indoctrinated in project techniques.

Considering project treatments, the first aspect is the complexity of the design. Complexity was not related to size. We saw very simple projects that were enormously costly; on the other hand, one of the most successful projects was fabulously and endlessly complicated--a sort of educational Gaudi design. This is a curious finding since the probability of successful implementation would seem to go down as the number of necessary precursor contingencies goes up. Yet the most successful projects relied on various inputs, the availability of different sorts of actor attitudes, long chains of changes and events, and so on. The message may be that no lesser sort of effort will suffice and the risks of complexity are a necessary condition for success.

The most successful projects tailor-made and prepackaged their own materials. Locally developed curriculum counteracted the parochiality of teachers, most of whom believed that no one else could possibly know anything of *their* situations. When the trainers wrote their own guides and curricula, they knew them better and believed in them more than if they had simply adopted preexisting materials. Successful materials were those which offered early successes and a number of alternate points of entry (e.g., classroom physical organization, child self-concept, diagnostic procedure, etc.) so that teachers could begin wherever they felt they needed help. The availability of material rewards was not a significant incentive for teachers to start the training, but it was a useful reinforcement to continue it. In an area where graduate training is notorious for the level of its standards, it is interesting to note that three of the projects incorporated tough-minded evaluation of what the trainees had or had not acquired. One project was especially active in that regard. Failure to pass a component competence examination was a relatively frequent experience, but rather than being discouraged, the trainees seemed to feel that it contributed credibility to the training experience and distinguished it from many of the demeaning "Mickey Mouse" institutes and workshops to which they had been subjected.

The most powerful programs had the following characteristics:

1. The simple availability, over time, of the training staff as a source of help on the trainees' demand and on the trainees' problems. This reduced the teachers' apprehension that change projects meant more unrealistic work for them.

2. The provision of a demonstration lesson done by the trainer with the trainees' classes but with no participation or responsibility on the part of the trainee. That helped establish the trainer's credibility and the treatment's feasibility.

3. Provision of multimedia, multitopic, self-paced, auto-instructional teaching packages for the trainees' independent use. It should be kept in mind that many teachers do not like to read.

4. The credible, non-individious, independent evaluation of individual progress at relatively frequent intervals by people outside the teacher's school-based chain of command and unrelated to the teacher's "official," permanent-record performance evaluation. Only one project was able with impunity to incorporate the principal's participation in the teacher's evaluation. Needless to say, that place did not have a union or even a strong teachers' association.

Projects that aspire to teacher change must deal with the teacher's boss--the principal. The projects which achieved the least of their own change-oriented agendas did so in large part because building principals redirected or subverted project efforts at the school building level. Most building principals did not favor staff development efforts that challenged their traditional role as the instructional leader, master teacher, or chief teacher trainer in the school. Also, the project was almost bound to try to move teachers away from practices that had already been sanctioned by the responsible head of the school, the principal. Few principals opposed the district's initiation of projects, but many opposed project efforts once they had crossed the school's threshold.

Two projects tried to do an end-run around the principals to the teachers. One case succeeded because of the passivity and unsophistication of that group of principals. In the other case, the principals lost a few of the early battles and then won the war with a sort of "scorched earth" strategy directed against project personnel. Project goals did not completely govern resource allocation but did so in combination with other criteria such as (a) the prior social access of the training staff to trainees, (b) the accessibility of grade levels to treatment, (c) the demands of a particular treatment, and (d) idiosyncratic, largely uncontrolled, and largely unanticipated factors. Resource allocation patterns attested to the power of the principals. Where principals controlled, they used resources largely to maintain and buttress the status quo (cover ordinary classes, act as substitutes, etc.). Where project people controlled, project purposes were better served, and where, because of political opposition from the principals, they could not be served at least the project staff was in a stronger position to negotiate terms of the compromises.

Evaluation in the sense of *informal* but serious stock taking by project staff and district clientele was an important activity in the most successful projects. They paid attention to it and they changed because of it. Evaluation in the sense of *formal* project assessment for the state and federal grantors was done to continue to qualify for money, not for its utility to project management.

Trainee Characteristics. The people to be developed strongly influenced the success or failure of the projects. The higher the grade level, the more resistant to training was the teacher. No project was able to have any impact on a high school. A number of things about high schools seemed to be at work here.

1. High school teachers relate to their topical fields more than to an overall schooling mission. While most change projects emphasized process, high school teachers consistently subordinated process considerations to topic coverage.

2. Topic specialization provides an organizing base which makes high school teachers believe themselves to be superior to their lower grade colleagues. That specialization strengthens defenses against outsiders and makes resistance to change easier and more effective.

3. Many high school faculties are often already split into antagonistic groups of "core," "solids" or "academic" teachers and "electives" teachers. The lack of cooperation among those factions makes things like scheduling changes and team teaching very difficult to realize. Norms of local unanimity further freeze this situation. (One group's cohesively expressed desires will not be interfered with by another group.)

4. The baby boom has not yet ebbed in the high schools which remain relatively overcrowded, thus affording teachers there less free time and organizational slack than is currently available in lower grades.

5. High school teachers deal more briefly with many more and older students and thus tend to blame the anonymous mass of threatening students more than themselves for the failure of schooling. Students who fail or who are failed by the high school simply go away and are not persistent problems within the same organization. These factors diminish the sense of personal responsibility and thus the felt need to change.

6. Because high schools are large and more specialized with more intermediate organizational layers, high school teachers are less dependent on their principals than are elementary school teachers and thus are more insulated by the chain of command.

7. High school faculties are usually more unionized than their elementary colleagues and thus less malleable with respect to "extra" demands of training programs.

8. There is less exogenous pressure on high schools.

The other strong relationship in the area of trainee characteristics had to do with the way in which teachers joined the project. Most projects devoted the bulk of their resources to and had greatest impact on volunteers. The volunteers tended to be "friends and neighbors" of the project staff members; as a more congenial group sharing many assumptions, the initial training was easier to conduct and moved faster. Since most projects had been designed for work with a more difficult population, the early successes with the volunteers were gratifying, especially so for the people who were uncertain about the sufficiency and reception of their techniques and who needed early successes to justify their further efforts. In addition, special projects which were untried and struggling for credibility and support seldom had the political clout to require participation. Often the premises of the training techniques (organizational development, for example) made it inappropriate to force participation. The teachers' organizations, their regular responsibilities, and their professional status usually were sufficient protection from such mandates anyway. Thus, the focus was placed on a training population of volunteers.

Unfortunately, that early concentration on volunteers had some deleterious effects. It misled trainers about what to expect. It encouraged them to modify their training agenda based on experiences with volunteers which then would not work at all when (or if) the project took on a nonvolunteer audience. Third, it created obligations and expectations for continued service which subtly steered the project's resources back toward the most receptive audiences--the volunteers. But, since most volunteers already agreed with the project's premises and were eager for its treatment (why else volunteer?) the result was to allocate the most resources where they were least needed. The whole sequence is as understandable as it is serious in its impact on program direction and success.

The extent to which trainees perceived a need for their own (further) development is an important but complicated characteristic. Where would the support for development come from? Where projects were initiated because of a particular crisis (e.g., racial outbursts, rampant drug abuse), the perceived need often related only to that crisis and not to underlying causes. When the crisis was resolved the impetus for change disappeared. What should be done in the absence of a perceived need to change? Once the project had exhausted its pool of volunteers, the rest of the potential population was likely to feel that they were doing well without the project. The vivid shift that occurred in this single behavioral characteristic--from those who wanted the project's treatment to those who didn't--would seem to dictate two distinctly different training techniques, yet *no* projects made an adequate response to that shift.

The defensive characteristics of the nonvolunteer audience need some explanation. As a whole, teachers must try to perform virtually impossible tasks with a technology that is inadequate or simply wrong. Defensiveness and secretiveness are understandable attitudes where the circumstances demand a professional, pedagogical role performance even though there is no sufficient knowledge about what causes good teaching and learning. Also, because teachers recognize that they are supposed to perform intellectual tasks, and because their intellect is clearly on display in most kinds of professional interaction (especially in training sessions), the safest performance is the least performance. Thus, to guard themselves from negative evaluation, they simply clammed up. It is hard to train clams.

There is a lot of debate in the literature about the heterophilous/homophilous nature of the trainers in relation to the trainees. The most successful trainers we encountered were those who had paid their dues in the instant client system but who were at some emotional, professional, and tactical distance from it. The most effective trainers seemed naively enthusiastic and maintained that enthusiasm in the face of reality.

Many projects used outside consultants in an attempt to get critical attitudes and the freedom to act on them. All of the projects which employed outside consultants as trainers dropped them after the first year. They were simply not credible enough, responsive enough, or available enough to succeed.

Organizational and Personal Characteristics. The project's location in relation to the bureaucracy of the schools was an important characteristic. Teachers depend on their principals for many critical things (desirable teaching assignments, free time, scheduling cooperation, materials and supplies, promotions, protection from parents and other "outsiders," approbation, and exemption from scores of harrassing, petty regulations). Where the principal refused to allow carpet squares in a teacher's classroom (they were alleged to "breed vermin") or where the principal could reduce a teacher to tears in front of her colleagues for allowing "noise" (children talking to children) or where a principal could dump *all* of the school's behavior problems on a teacher as a reward for her newly acquired teaching skills in the area of learning disabilities--then teachers thought *very* carefully about their principal's reaction. The training project and staff were temporary phenomena; soon enough the teacher would be left to make peace with the school's permanent authority figure. This anticipated reaction among the training population was central to the success or failure of projects and it gave every principal a built-in lever to influence the teachers' responses to the development effort.

Thus, every project identified the system's principals as a critical force. Only one project even attempted to buck the principals, entering schools and conducting a training session on the authority of the superintendent--a practice that lasted until the principals' association forced the board to rescind the superintendent's authority! More commonly, the project announced the district-wide availability of its services in tones of muted assertiveness, but when the trainers crossed the school's threshold they worked with teachers chosen by the principal, on problems identified by the principal, and with success determined by the principal. More happily, principals sometimes exercised plenary power to reinforce the project. But, since change is almost necessarily a challenge to authority, that was rare. In those few cases where principals did support the projects, the changes were as swift and dramatic as a proposal writer's fondest dream.

Few effects came through more clearly than the salutary consequences of personal commitment on these projects. Where the staff believed in what they were doing, the projects had a much greater chance to flourish. Could project features themselves encourage that commitment? The most useful incentive seems to have been the visibility or mobility of project personnel. The more successful projects were run by people who reported changes in their career prospects while the less successful projects were run by people who were comfortably resigned to falling back to classroom teaching at the project's conclusion. The explanation for this is probably related to the animosity which vigorous change attempts engendered. Successful people needed a way to escape from the district and were glad to have it; less successful people could easily sink back into the organizations which they had never challenged. A number of factors of personal demography (age, training, sex, etc.) were checked but found to be unrelated to success.

PARTISAN MUTUAL ADAPTATION

Adaptation deals with the impact of the school on the project. We had hypothesized that a great deal of the reported outcomes (and especially short-falls) of change-agent projects could be attributed to the school's transmogrification of the projects which were supposed to have changed the school. All projects displayed a clear and similar pattern of adaptation. With the passage of time they: (a) became less ambitious about the system-wide effects they sought; (b) simplified their treatments; (c) slowed the pace of their activities; (d) decreased the amount of changed behavior expected from any individual; and (e) decreased their expectations about how many people within a site could be changed.

Three of the projects examined initially intended to retrain teachers at all levels of their systems, K-12. All three began with a focus on the elementary school teacher population but never succeeded in coming to grips with the high schools. Ordinarily, a project starts out with a very ambitious agenda of change, in part in order to capture funds. But after the original funding has been secured, there is a need to justify continued funding and that means demonstrating success with much more discrete, measurable phenomena than those in the original agenda. Unfortunately, although superficially precise, the measured phenomena are only a small and usually not very important fragment of the project's goals. One project that began as a total curriculum revolution had its most successful and widespread implementation in the teaching of spelling.

A similar phenomenon operated to reduce the risk involved in a project. Broad and sincere attempts to change organizations and people encountered vivid resistance. Resisting the resistance burned up the project's capital. When the staff began to appreciate how slow and costly change is, they often scaled down their goals to match the available resources. Thus projects which started out to end illiteracy ended up trying to teach any kids just a little bit about anything. Projects that had tried for individualized instruction satisfied themselves with having achieved differentiated small(er) group interaction. Problem solving gave way to remediation. Revolution gave way to reform.

Similar processes operated to simplify the project treatment. The panoply of services and activities and the sequences of phases and events which characterized the early stages were diluted as they were transferred from the project leadership to the training staff to the trainees. In one project, for example, a consulting firm which specialized in organizational development tried to teach that technology in capsule form to a group of teachers who were then actually to conduct the OD interventions in their home schools. The result was that one group (the consultants) had all the technology and no responsibility while the teachers had only a little technology and all the responsibility. Predictably, the teachers only employed the simplest and "safest" of the techniques. The training audience also acted to prune the treatment. The real world knocks a lot of the edges off the ivory tower original conceptualizations. (Parenthetically we wish to report the discovery of quite a few ivory towers located not in universities but in district headquarters.) Thus, some project materials were cut by half, the amount of collateral reading was reduced, the length of training exposure was shortened, etc. Treatments also were simplified by being captured. Trainers arriving at the school with an elaborate training routine often discovered that the principal or the teacher-clients had other ideas about how the project staff should be used. A related phenomenon has to do with the fact that sufficient behavioral intervention is a time-consuming process which, because it is so costly, can only be made available to a relatively small group of people. But where the project was viewed as a benefit or "goodie" to be distributed, there was often pressure to make that benefit available to as many people as possible. Thus, in order to spread the benefit to more people (and, not incidentally, to build a base of political support), the treatment was thinned and applied to more people, but with less effect on any given person.

Another phenomenon probably accounts for even more of these projects' actual outcomes. That phenomenon deals with the tiny changes made at the margins of the instructional behavior of a great many teachers. Although the bulk of their practice might still appall the project staff, it remains a significant achievement if, after the project, "trained" teachers hit *fewer* students, allowed *slightly* more interaction, praised *slightly* more often, and so on. Not only are such changes barely visible and usually barely conscious, many teachers strain to deny them or at least deny that the project introduced them. The defensiveness of quasi-professionals is such that many teachers with whom we talked deprecated project techniques and praised traditional instruction. But their classrooms sometimes featured wall charts of student behavior, interest centers, and the paraphernalia of differentiated instruction. When asked to explain those features, they would claim to have been doing those things all along or to have invented them themselves, although in fact that was not the case. In assessing the total impact of these projects, the contribution of these two groups--the isolated "loners" and the "denying doers"--needs to be added to the more dramatic and rare instances of schoolwide transformation.

In only one instance was the fate of the project of extreme interest to the district's superordinates. In that case, the project constituted 90 percent of their attempts at reforming the district, and thus they regarded it very highly. In another case, the project's resources were the only leverage available to a superordinate although he simply could not get a handle on them fast enough to turn a floundering activity to his own advantage. In most cases, superordinates were mildly pleased to have the projects as symbols of their modernity but indifferent to the outcomes.

The figure which follows summarizes the features of the most and least successful cases along with one "mixed case."

CONTINUATION

The key question here is, what characteristics of the project were likely to be continued after the end of federal support? Because of our one-time data collection exigencies, this judgment was in large part an informed guesstimate. The continuation of project efforts in the most

SUMMARIZED PROJECT CHARACTERISTICS RELATED TO AMOUNT OF SUCCESS

The Least Successful Cases

Case #4	*Case #5*
• Interrupted leadership. Some commitment but also uncertainty about content of techniques.	• Changing leadership. No confidence in techniques. Status quo orientation.
• No real goals. Search for problems which might be helped.	• Goals of organizational maintenance.
• Change from bottom up.	• No change intended.
• Simple project treatment.	• Laissez-faire, situationally determined project treatments.
• Consultant provision of materials with little on-site development. No trainee progress evaluation. Relevance only to one part of the teacher's role (participation in management).	• No materials. High role relevance.
• Strong theoretical base but among consulting group, not project staff.	• No theoretical base.
• Limited availability of staff to project treatment.	• High availability of staff to project treatment.
• No rewards, only risks.	• No rewards.
• Low felt need among a knowledgeable but complacent and suspicious population.	• No felt need among a veteran and extremely resistant population.
• Superordinate opposition; opposition from principals.	• Superordinate support; subversion by principals.
• No peer group support. No critical mass.	• Same as #4. (cont.)

The Two Most Successful Cases

Case #1	*Case #2*
An integral, highly committed management group that stayed with the project from its initiation on. The group provided itself with social and material support against opposition.	Same as #1 plus overtones of true-believer, messianic and revolutionary spirit.
A goal of substantial transformation in the most important areas of the district's teaching practices.	A goal of revolutionary change in all parts of the system.
Change initiated from the central office middle management level down.	Change initiated from the higher reaches of the central office down.
A relatively complicated project treatment with several components and sequences.	An extremely complicated and comprehensive treatment.
Strong emphasis on on-site development of materials and written curriculum. Material to allow multiple entry points, teacher pacing, and independent but non-invidious evaluation. Highly role-relevant training.	Same as #1.
	Strong theoretical base.
Availability of some staff assistance on site.	Limited on-site staff assistance. Some demonstration lessons.
Some material rewards as reinforcement for continuation not as incentive to begin.	Same as #1.
Very high felt need among an innocent and trusting training population.	High felt need among an innocent but xenophobic training population. Some teacher motion in a direction the project could reinforce.
No opposition; some principal support.	Opposition and very little limited support from principals.
Peer group support in the schools and several critical masses.	More limited supported and fewer critical masses.

(cont.)

The Mixed Case

Case #3

This case is different from the others in that the project leadership refused to force the pace of the training activities until they felt that the majority of the school's faculty wanted to change and had assimilated an OD truth/trust attitude. Thus, in the first two years of what was nominally a project to differentiate instruction, there had been no attempt to communicate technology or content of staff development.

- A single leader through the project but a management group which was elected by the teachers and thus fluctuated. Some cohesion against opposition.
- A goal of substantial change in several areas but patience about the rate of progress.
- Top support and several superordinate moves that paralleled and reinforced the project's moves.
- A persistent stress on a single theme (truth-trust) to date.
- A fetish about bootstraps. Total on-site determination of project activities but few materials. Independent, non-invidious evaluation. Focus to date not perceived as being very role relevant.
- Material but not staff assistance to trainees. No demonstration lessons.
- High felt need among a frustrated and suspicious population.
- No opposition; support from principal.
- Very strong peer group support and critical mass, but at only one grade level.

successful district appeared assured if only because the materials and procedures produced remained intact and the training activities were never dependent on pacing or guidance by the teachers themselves. Thus the project's dissolution left a stock of materials with which many of the district's teachers already had a favorable experience. To add to that happy prospect, the project staff had lobbied hard to have completion of parts of the training materials accepted as qualification for a higher step on the district's pay scale. Then, when the state education department required all districts to come up with a new set of performance competencies for recertification of their faculties, the project staff successfully inserted their project's own list of desired teacher outcomes. All teachers must now pay more attention to those standards. Since the project never had to face any significant opposition and since a high proportion of the district's teachers have had a favorable experience with the training, the prospects for the continuation of the project's activities (but not of the project itself) seem good.

Similar points may be made with respect to the other or the clearly successful project sites. There, the staff anticipated from the beginning that the reemergence of the conservative forces would inevitably overwhelm the project. Part of the staff's drive to produce a great many materials and to infiltrate all parts of the bureaucracy was in preparation for that contingency. The hope was that out of a "blanket" or "cascade" of services, some would survive. In addition to that fishegg strategy, in order to guard against backsliding on the part of project personnel who were returning to their former (unreconstructed) environs, all such personnel were required to undergo the complete training cycle a second time. The project's enemies have moved vigorously against it, but the project has "gone underground" and thus many activities should survive.

In the mixed case school, where enactment of many of the project's goals and technology has been substantially delayed, it is very hard to predict continuation. The theoretical justification for emphasizing interpersonal communications is to ensure that the ensuing changes will be more profound and more lasting. So one hopes.

For the other schools, the most that can be hoped for is that those relatively fewer teachers whose behavior was affected will not return to their old patterns of behavior. There is evidence to support that expectation. Most of the teachers whose instructional practices were changed as a result of these projects were already somewhat dissatisfied with their performance or became persuaded of its inadequacy. There was agreement that it would be impossible to move back to large group, teacher-talk instruction and, to a person, our respondents denied that they ever would. Thus, at the atomistic but still important level of the individual, continuation seems to have a reasonable prospect.

DISSEMINATION DIFFUSION

The key question here was whether the project was disseminated to other schools or districts. Only two projects demonstrated any real impact on schools other than the original target schools. In both cases that effort was linked to the personal drive of the project's leadership. In one case, the leader was a former professor who had a habit of publication and a need for career-enhancing publicity. In the other case, the project director had set up a statewide organization of project directors as a defense against what he felt was SEA interference. He did a lot of speaking, inevitably about his own experiences, and therefore received a lot of publicity, visitors, and requests for information from his colleagues.

All projects felt hampered by SEA and federal regulations putting stringent conditions on their dissemination activities. In the absence of any broader audience, the only people to whom the project might be diffused were the other schools in each district. That did not happen either.

It was a universal experience of these projects that, regardless of their degree of success, they were studiously ignored by their district colleagues. Although the school may have been a virtual Walden III, visitors were still more likely to come from 200 miles away than from two miles away. The educator's insecurity is probably the chief explanation for this. Someone working in the same environment with roughly the same resources who does a demonstrably better job is seen as a threat, a show-off, and probably a cheat. The same phenomenon applies among faculties. Teacher trainers are much more acceptable when they travel to neighboring schools than when they try to ply their trade in their own schools. The educator's response is to ignore the lighthouse school if it is close to home and instead go far enough away so that (a) asking for help can be a more anonymous and "safer" experience; (b) it won't be necessary to acknowledge the superiority of someone with whom you are in competition; and (c) the ideas can be changed with impunity and then (d) credited to one's self.

FOOTNOTES

1. The interested reader is referred to the complete reports from the first year of the project. See especially Peter W. Greenwood, Dale Mann, and Milbrey Wallin McLaughlin, *Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change, Vol. III: The Process of Change* (Santa Monica, Calif.: Rand Corporation, R-1589/3-HEW, April 1975). Other volumes relevant to the first year of this project are: Paul Berman and Milbrey Wallin McLaughlin, *Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change, Vol. I: A Model of Educational Change* (Santa Monica, Calif.: Rand Corporation, R-1589/1-HEW, April 1975); Paul Berman and Edward W. Pauly, *Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change, Vol. II: Factors Affecting Change Agent Projects* (Santa Monica, Calif.: Rand Corporation, R-1589/2-HEW, April 1975); Paul Berman and Milbrey Wallin McLaughlin, *Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change, Vol. IV: The Findings in Review* (Santa Monica, Calif.:

Rand Corporation, R-1589/4-HEW, April 1975); and Paul Berman, Peter W. Greenwood, Milbrey Wallin McLaughlin, and John Pincus, *Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change, Vol. V: Executive Summary* (Santa Monica, Calif.: Rand Corporation, R-1589/5-HEW, April 1975).

2. The complete staff development cases are available in "Appendix A" of Greenwood, Mann, and McLaughlin, *op. cit.*

3. Since we were looking only at places with federally supported projects, it is obvious that those places were using someone else's money. Clearly there are other, indigenous problem-solving efforts--reorganizing, program redirection, new program starts and so on.

4. This holds only for models of cooperative and semicooperative change. Where conflict is to be the engine of change, prior labeling may very well be a good tactic to get the target group's attention. Many people deny the possibility of any change in education except through the cooperative route. On the basis of these cases, that attitude seems as much a description of the problem as a valid conclusion. The purpose of public policy remains the regular achievement of public goods--under many circumstances but especially in instances of conflict or disagreement which are after all the most significant environment for public policy.

"Schools as Influencers" (Videotape)

III. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURES AND PRACTICES FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

B. Objective: Identify school policies and structures which reinforce sex stereotypes.

6. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

For more intensive discussion, and for suggestions for using the videotape, see Video Viewers' Guide No. 7: Schools as Influencers.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants view the half-hour color videotape "Schools as Influencers."

c. Critical incidents in the educational experience are identified in the first section of this tape. Communication between students and staff, school policies, peer influences, segregation of subjects, and other issues are discussed in the second segment, as they affect what students see as acceptable or possible in terms of their own career decisions. In the third segment, some innovative educators share their experiences and their ideas of what to do to encourage increased career options. In small groups of five to six, discuss the critical incidents, the issues, and possible solutions. Possible discussion questions are:

1) Which of the incidents did you identify with or think was the most real?
2) Have you experienced similar incidents during your education?
3) If you are or even were an educator, have you had similar experiences with students? Do you think that the incidents and issues are representative of fact? If not, why not?
4) If you are a parent, have your children had similar experiences during their school years? If so, what was your reaction? And what, if anything, did you do?
5) What do you think educators can do to improve career options for students?
6) Is there anything that you, as a parent/citizen, can do to increase career options for all students?
7) Does your school or college have a systematic career development/career education program? Does it perpetuate stereotypes or really try to expand opportunities? What can you do to help develop one?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes for tape
30 minutes for discussion

Resources Needed:

Materials: Videotape No. 7, "Schools as Influencers"
Video Viewers' Guide No. 7: Schools as Influencers

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will have actively participated in the discussion of the influence of schools in career development generally and in their own individual career decisions.

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-L

III.B.7.

"Colleges as Influencers" (Videotape)

III. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THIER AWARENESS OF HOW INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURES AND PRACTICES FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

B. Objective: Identify school policies and structures which reinforce sex stereotypes.

7. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants view the half-hour color videotape "Colleges as Influencers."

c. This videotape examines a few of the problems faced by students as they attempt to get the most from their higher education experience. It also looks at issues of faculty concern in the area of career development and sex bias. In small groups, have participants discuss the messages provided by the interviewer regarding the themes of nontraditional career choices, reentry, promotion and tenure, role models and implications for the future. Some suggested questions for discussion are listed below. For more detailed questions, please refer to the Video Viewers' Guide No. 8: Colleges as Influencers.

1) What is the overall message of the tape?
2) In what ways did the tape personally have an impact on you?
3) What did the students in nontraditional careers have to say about their choices? What were the inhibitors, the facilitators? What role does support from colleagues and peers play?
4) Entering or reentering school provides one with a unique set of issues. What are some of the issues as they relate to assistance in selection of vocational or other educational programs, strain upon personal/family relationships, financial concerns, etc.?
5) How do the comments on role models and mentors affect the world of students? Of faculty?
6) Several interviewers commented on the subtle distinctions which may occur in working with men and women students. What were these and how might they affect the choices made by students?
7) Reference was made to the inequity of promotion and tenure possibilities between men and women. How does this occur despite legal changes?
8) How can the structure of the educational system be changed so that students can have equal access to programs and faculty, to jobs and promotions?
9) What special issues must be looked at regarding race, class, physical handicap, etc.?

d. Summarize

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes for tape
30 minutes for discussion

Resources Needed:

Materials: Videotape No. 8, "Colleges as Influencers"
Video Viewers' Guide No. 8: Colleges as Influencers

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will write four main generalizations which might be derived from the themes presented on the tape and indicate how the themes are personally relevant.

"Textbook Analysis of Sex-Role Stereotypes"

III. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURES AND PRACTICES FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

C. Objective: Identify and critique sex-role stereotypes in textbooks, career development materials, and other educational materials.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity requires textbooks to be on hand for critiquing. Leaders should bring them or ask participants to do so.

This activity also is related to II.A.1., "Language and Sex-Role Stereotyping."

See also III.B.1., "School Comparison Charts."

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Distribute one or more secondary school textbooks to each participant, along with an "Evaluating Curriculum Materials" worksheet for each book.

c. The leader may wish to make copies of the attached article, "What You Can Do About Biased Textbooks," available to participants as a background source.

d. Participants are to evaluate the text (or materials which they brought from their own schools) according to the criteria on the worksheet.

e. After an hour has elapsed, convene the group to discuss the results from the worksheets. If time permits, a composite list can be compiled on a blackboard or newsprint.

f. Summarize. (If educators find some of their texts to contain sex-stereotyped material, it is suggested that they point this out to their students when using that material, as well as write to the publisher.)

Alternative Strategy: In a multiple-day workshop, the materials and worksheets can be distributed, the evaluations completed outside the workshop setting, and the discussion/compilation of results scheduled for the next day.

Minimum Time Required: 1½ hours

Resources Needed:

Materials: Secondary school texts (supplied by leaders or brought by participants)
Handout: "Evaluating Curriculum Materials: A Worksheet"
Attached Article: "What You Can Do About Biased Textbooks" (Mediacenter, 1975)

Outcome Criterion:

Each participant will submit a completed worksheet with a one-page summary of his or her conclusions regarding whether the text is one which would inhibit or facilitate a broad range of career choices for persons being taught with these materials.

EVALUATING CURRICULUM MATERIALS: A WORKSHEET

Name ______________________________

In order to assess the degree to which curriculum materials may perpetuate career-related sex-role stereotyping, answer the following questions:

1. Name of text/material:
2. Subject matter area:
3. Copyright (year):
4. Author(s):
5. What occupations/activities are mentioned or pictured for (list):

	Girls	Boys	Women	Men
White				
Other Racial Groups				
Disabled/Handicapped				

6. How many pictures of each sex are shown (tally):

	Girls	Boys	Women	Men
White				
Other Racial Groups				
Disabled/Handicapped				

7. How many times does the text mention (tally):

	Women/Girls	Men/Boys
White		
Other Racial Groups		
Disabled/Handicapped		

8. What adjectives are used to describe:

	Girls	Boys	Women	Men
White				
Other Racial Groups				
Disabled/Handicapped				

9. Describe the language used throughout the book (for example: Does "man" mean "human" or "male", or is she/he or other similar types of language used?)

10. Are significant contributions of women or men omitted?

11. What characteristics emerge of each group as they are depicted in the textbook? What kinds of role models are presented?

12. What kind of racial and ethnic diversity is evident in the material, and to what extent is it stereotyped in nature?

13. How might these materials have an impact on the career options girls and boys perceive as available to or appropriate for them?

14. Summarize your analysis of the text/materials in a page or less.

WHAT YOU CAN DO ABOUT BIASED TEXTBOOKS[1]

The Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education

CHANGING STEREOTYPED TEXTBOOKS AND THEIR IMPACT

Individual awareness of racism and sexism in textbooks and instructional materials is an important first step in changing biased materials and their impact on all of us. Each of us has a responsibility for using our awareness to bring about some changes and support others who are working in this area. The following represents a checklist of the things that students, teachers, administrators, parents and community groups can do to "act" on their awareness.

STUDENTS

Look for and learn to recognize bias that may be found in textbooks, library books, television programs, magazines, etc.

Ask your librarians to help you identify non-racist, non-sexist books. Select books that help you understand people in other cultures or situations than your own.

Point out bias when you recognize it in materials you are using in school.

Do a study of your textbooks. Ask your teacher if you can do this with other students as a project or as part of your own school work.

Write letters to people who can help you learn more about bias in textbooks.

Write letters to publishers and let them know when you have found bias in textbooks.

Rewrite stories or textbooks to show how they might have been written to avoid bias or from another person's point of view

TEACHERS IN THE CLASSROOM

"Level" with the students in your classroom. Point out racist or sexist bias of books or materials. Help them learn to identify sources of bias and important omissions in the materials.

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[1] From: What you can do about biased textbooks. Mediacenter, May, 1975, pp. 31-33. Reprinted by permission of Baker and Taylor Co.

Develop classroom activities around identifying bias found in television, textbooks, movies, library books, magazines, etc.

Incorporate the development of critical reading skills as an instructional objective for all your teaching, not just when special efforts are being made to identify bias in materials.

Identify or develop supplementary materials which can help "correct" some of the bias of available materials.

Design student research projects. These might include a study of their own textbook materials or their identification of supplementary materials.

Assign student papers, themes, term papers, or other activities on topics or persons not usually covered in textbooks or materials.

When students have completed activities identifying bias, have them write letters and send reports to administrators, publishers, community groups and organizations working to reduce bias in textbooks.

Invite local resource persons into your classroom to provide additional information and work with students on special projects and activities.

Ask students to rewrite materials, write their own materials on subjects omitted from the textbook, or rewrite the material from other persons' points of view.

Use bulletin boards, posters, pictures, magazines, and other materials to expose students to information commonly excluded from traditional materials.

Develop a classroom collection of non-racist, non-sexist reading materials for students, identify books that students may be encouraged to seek out in their personal reading.

TEACHER GROUPS

Form a committee to investigate the process of textbook selection. Where local or state groups or officials have responsibility for buying books, meet with them to learn their criteria for selection and procedures for identifying supplementary materials. Let them know your needs and sensitize them to sources of racism and sexism.

Request and use funds available for instructional materials in building supplementary materials resources for your classrooms/schools.

Develop and plan and organize in-service training sessions on biased textbooks and instructional materials. Several sessions should be included to deal with identifying racism and sexism, methods of analyzing materials, developing supplementary materials, and classroom activities for identifying bias.

Meet with school librarians and ask them to assist teachers in the identification of non-racist, non-sexist, multi-ethnic books and materials. Urge them to order and provide resources for supplementary materials.

Conduct a study and periodic review of the bias found in the textbooks and materials used in your classrooms/schools.

Call on district or state curriculum development specialists to provide guidelines, materials, training, and other resources related to non-racist, non-sexist books and materials.

Include provisions for in-service training and funds for supplementary materials in collective bargaining or teacher negotiations.

Organize a central file in your school or district of supplementary materials, curriculum outlines, or other resources you have used for identifying bias and supplementing the curriculum.

Develop a list of local resource persons, materials and other resources for use in the classroom.

Identify non-traditional publishing firms, alternative presses, and other groups developing materials in this area. Make sure that information about these groups is distributed to all teachers.

Publicize studies, workshops, and other efforts to improve materials or reduce the impact of biased materials.

ADMINISTRATORS

Develop a policy statement outlining your concern about the elimination of racist and sexist stereotypes in textbooks and library books.

Appoint a task force to investigate the problem in your community and make recommendations for action.

Develop guidelines for all personnel to follow in purchasing and using textbooks and other instructional materials.

Earmark a proportion of funds to be used for the purchase of non-racist, non-sexist supplementary materials.

Develop and implement a plan for in-service training of all personnel who select, purchase, recommend or use textbooks or other instructional materials.

Direct supervisors and curriculum developers to develop resources and materials for assisting classroom teachers in reducing the impact of biased materials.

Call on state departments of education, teacher training institutions and professional associations to provide materials, workshops and technical assistance.

Interpret the problems of biased textbooks and materials to parents, community groups, and policy-making boards. Let them know of your concerns and how they may assist in solving the problem.

PARENTS AND COMMUNITY GROUPS

Read the textbooks and materials that your children are using and identify sources of bias where they exist.

Meet with your children's teachers and principals. Learn how the problem is being handled in your school.

Work with other parents or groups to raise their awareness of the problem of biased materials.

Meet with school board members to outline your concerns. Support expenditures for supplementary materials and in-service training for school personnel.

Sponsor a community workshop on bias in textbooks and instructional materials. Include information that will assist parents in pointing out stereotypes in television, magazines, and other materials found in the home.

Organize a study of the bias of textbooks used in your community schools. Publicize the results and make recommendations for change.

Establish a special collection of books in the school or public library which features non-racist, non-sexist, and multi-ethnic books.

Identify how textbooks are selected in your community. Write to and/or meet with persons responsible for textbook selection at local and state levels to voice your concerns, urging purchase of quality materials and inclusion of supplementary materials.

Write to textbook publishers and indicate your dissatisfaction with biased materials. Support examples of non-racist, non-sexist books that have been developed.

Recognize the efforts of teachers and administrators who are taking positive actions to deal with the problem.

Organize a task force or speakers' bureau to meet with other groups to extend their understanding of the problem and actions that may be taken.

"Stereotypes of the Physically Disabled"

III. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURES AND PRACTICES FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

C. Objective: Identify and critique sex-role stereotypes in textbooks, career development materials, and other educational materials.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

The attached article should be assigned to be read prior to the session (or allow ten to fifteen minutes for reading during the workshop). It may be helpful to also include the two pages from the "Fact Pack" section which focuses on the physically disabled.

Instructions:

a. Have participants form small groups and discuss their reactions to the article. Suggested questions are:
   1) What was your overall response to the article?
   2) Was the information new or surprising to you?
   3) How would you feel if you were physically disabled? Do you think about it all?
   4) How might being physically handicapped affect one's opportunity for equal employment (include both internal and external factors)?
   5) How might being physically handicapped affect one's career development?
   6) How does your institution facilitate career development of the physically disabled? For example, what images are portrayed in textbooks and other materials? Are buildings barrier-free? Are there any programs aimed at reducing stereotypes, discriminatory practices, and barriers?

b. Report back to large group.

c. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes plus time to read the article

Resources Needed:

Attached article: "Media Portrayals of Disabled People: A Study in Stereotypes" (Biklen andgdan, 1978)

Outcome Criteria:

Participants will list three stereotypes of the disabled, three examples of non-stereotypic language uses, and two examples from their institution of ways in which the institution facilitates or inhibits career development of the physically disabled.

MEDIA PORTRAYALS OF DISABLED PEOPLE: A STUDY IN STEREOTYPES[1]

by Douglas Biklen and Robert Bogdan

"Handicapism" refers to the stereotyping, prejudice and discrimination practiced by society against disabled people.[2] The term provides a perspective by which we may analyze experiences, policies and practices related to disabilities.

Handicapist barriers have prevented the integration of disabled people into the mainstream of our society. This has made it easy to ignore the extent to which disability affects our population. Far from being a condition that affects only a few people, disability affects significant numbers of our population. The American Coalition of Citizens with Disabilities estimates that disabilities affect 36 million people--one out of every six people in the U.S.

As this sizeable and increasingly activist group of disabled people voices its concerns, we become more aware of the extent to which handicapism pervades our society. Handicapism is prevalent in education, employment, literature, the mass media, architectural and transportation design and in a multitude of other areas. Handicapism affects us *all*--both disabled and non-disabled people--just as we are *all* affected by racism, sexism, ageism and other negative, harmful attitudes.

One of the manifestations of handicapism--again as with racism, sexism, etc.--has been a profusion of negative stereotypes that serve to reinforce society's oppression of a minority group. As with stereotypes about Third World people and women, some stereotypes about people with disabilities draw upon--but distort--reality. While disabled people *do* experience some real limitations--decreased ability to hear, see or walk, for example--*most* of the limitations associated with being disabled derive from society's response to disability. (As one activist has said, "Our bodies make us disabled, but society makes us handicapped.") Society's negative stereotypes also draw upon myth, reflecting "truths" that upon close examination turn out to be false. Businesses, for example, frequently state that hiring a disabled worker will be costly in terms of insurance, special privileges, time missed for illness, etc., whereas studies show that none of these "facts" is true.

An interesting aspect of stereotypes about disabled people is that they often embrace two diametrically opposed concepts. In the same way that women have sometimes been viewed as either "saints" or "whores," perceptions of disabled people often reflect "two-sides-of-a-coin" extremes. (People with

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1. From: Interracial Books for Children Bulletin, 8 (6 & 7), 4-9. Reprinted with permission of the Council on Interracial Books for Children, 1841 Broadway, N.Y., N.Y. 10023. Free catalog available on materials to counter racism and sexism in the classroom.

2. The word "handicap" comes from the practice of beggars who held "cap in hand" to solicit charity--and the word reflects the dependent position in which society places disabled people.

DISABLED--YES; HANDICAPPED--NO:
THE LANGUAGE OF DISABILITY

Society's misconceptions about people with disabilities are reinforced by negative, handicapist terms--terms like "cripple," "spastic," "idiot." Continued use of these words contributes to the negative self-images of disabled people and perpetuates handicapist attitudes and practices.

One goal of the disability rights movement is the elimination of handicapist language--in speech, in media, in classrooms, in library card catalogs. The CIBC urges parents, librarians and teachers to be alert to handicapist terms and, when these words do come up, to ask that people think about their offensive implications.

Try to avoid all terms that dehumanize or objectify disabled persons, all terms that characterize disabled persons as dependent or pitiable, all terms that perpetuate the myth that disabled persons are incapable of participating in the life of a community.

There is considerable controversy about some terms. The word "handicap" is rejected by many disability rights activists because of its historic associations with "begging" and society's negative stereotypes. However, it is still the preferred term of the federal government and is the terminology used in the new legislation to protect disabled people against discrimination. The term "exceptional" has been favored for a number of years by some advocacy groups--for example, the Council for Exceptional Children in Reston, Virginia, and *Exceptional Parent,* a journal published in Massachusetts for parents of disabled children. Many disability activists consider this a euphemism. Massachusetts recently passed a law--Chapter 766--that prohibits labeling of any kind. Children with disabilities in Massachusetts are henceforth to be identified only as "children with special needs." The Massachusetts law is considered to be progressive, but there is some criticism that it gives legitimacy to a phrase that emphasizes a person's "neediness."

In deciding on terminology, *Bulletin* editors gave serious consideration to "physicalism," another term advanced by disability activists. Physicalism may be defined as discrimination based on physical appearance and was, therefore, considered too broad a referent for the kinds of disabilities discussed in this *Bulletin*. Future *Bulletin* articles will explore the broader topic.

We have selected the word "disability" as a positive reference to physical or developmental conditions, but we have used "handicapism" because of its negative connotations to describe society's oppression of disabled people.

(cont.)

Below are examples of terminology which, in the light of the new awareness, are considered to be offensive. Preferred substitutes are listed to the right. Some of these terms may appear awkward when first used, but groups using them find that they become readily acceptable after a short while.

OFFENSIVE	PREFERRED
handicap, handicapped person	disability, disabled person
deaf and dumb, deaf-mute, the deaf	deaf, hearing disability, hearing impairment
mongoloid	Down's syndrome
cripple, crippled	orthopedic disability, mobility impaired, disabled person
the blind	blind person, sight disability, visually impaired
retard, retardate, idiot, imbecile, feeble-minded	retarded, mental impairment, mentally disabled
crazy, maniac, insane, mentally ill	emotional disability, emotional impairment, developmentally disabled

RELATED TERMS TO AVOID: The Minnesota 1976 Governors Conference on Handicapped Individuals proposed that the following entries be deleted from library catalogs: Abnormal children; Abnormalities, Human; Atypical children; Children, Backward; Children, Retarded; Children, Feeble-Minded.

disabilities are, for example, seen as asexual and, on the other hand, as insatiable "sex degenerates"; as helpless victims of violence and, at the same time, as evil and frightening villains.) In addition, as will be pointed out, handicapist stereotypes are often interrelated and reinforce each other.

We believe with the Council on Interracial Books for Children that an effective way to begin counteracting handicapist stereotypes is to alert readers, especially young readers, to their presence. As a step toward this goal we have informally surveyed a range of classic literature as well as popular contemporary media. We have concluded that although a few books and films treat disabilities sensitively and accurately, most do not.

We observed, too, that even the most sensitive materials overplay individual solutions to disability problems without referring at all to societal factors that can cause disability, or to societal discrimination against disabled people.

Drawing on the images of disabled people revealed by our survey, we have compiled the following annotated list of handicapist stereotypes. This list is a first step, intended mainly to alert readers and stimulate thought. We ask you to join us in further illuminating handicapist stereotypes and in developing strategies to counteract handicapism.

HANDICAPIST STEREOTYPES

1. The disabled person as pitiable and pathetic. This image is often projected in newspapers and in charity drive solicitations for "the needy" or "handicapped." Remember the old "March of Dimes" posters? Though the posters have been changed in response to protests, the concept is still alive and well in the yearly telethons held to raise money for people with cerebral palsy and muscular dystrophy. (At a 1977 demonstration protesting the annual United Cerebral Palsy Telethon, Disabled in Action, a disability rights organization, stated: "Fund-raising telethons are demeaning and explcitative 'shows' which celebrate and encourage pity.")

In literature the pitiable and pathetic stereotype is reflected in the characterizations of Philip Carey in *Of Human Bondage* and Laura Wingfield in *The Glass Menagerie*. This stereotype is often used by authors as a device for revealing another character's goodness and sensitivity. In such instances, the disabled persons seem to have been included primarily so that a main character can be seen showing love, kindness and pity toward them. "Pitiable and pathetic" characters are often portrayed as having hearts of gold, which serves to elicit even greater feelings of pity (rather than genuine compassion) from audiences or readers. Tiny Tim in *A Christmas Carol* is an example, as is Porgy in the Gershwin opera *Porgy and Bess*. This patronizing stereotype springs in part from the feelings of superiority that non-disabled people harbor towards people with disabilities.

2. The disabled person as object of violence. In reality, disabled people are often victims of violence. However, the absence in literature and other media of a full range of roles for disabled people renders this type of portrayal a stereotype that strongly reinforces society's view that people with disabilities are totally helpless and dependent. The films *Woman in a Cage* and *What Ever Happened to Baby Jane?* are examples. In the former, Olivia DeHavilland, in a wheelchair, is trapped in an elevator by a band of youthful thieves while they ransack her apartment. In the latter, Joan Crawford (also in a wheelchair) is wholly at the mercy of her diabolical and murderous sister, Bette Davis. Another example is *Wait Until Dark*, in which a blind Audrey Hepburn ultimately outwits a bunch of thugs but only after they have thoroughly terrorized her in their search for a drug cache in her house. TV crime shows often sensationalize violent assaults against people with disabilities.

3. The disabled person as sinister and/or evil. The classic example of this common stereotype is Shakespeare's *Richard III*. Exploiting people's negative perceptions of physical disability, Shakespeare distorted the appearance of the king (who in real life was not disabled) to accentuate the evil dimension of his personality:

> I, that am curtail'd of this fair proportion,
> Cheated of feature by dissembling nature,
> Deform'd, unfinisht, sent before my time
> Into this breathing world, scarce half made up,
> And that so lamely and unfashionable
> That dogs bark at me as I halt by them
> Why, I, in this weak piping time of peace,
> Have no delight to pass away the time
> Unless to spy my shadow in the sun,
> And descant on mine own deformity:
> And therefore, since I cannot prove a lover,
> To entertain these fair well-spoken days,
> I am determined to prove a villain,
> And hate the idle pleasures of these days. (Act I, Sc.i)

Captain Ahab in Herman Melville's *Moby Dick* becomes so undone by the white whale's destruction of one of his legs that he sacrifices himself and most of his crew in obsessive pursuit of revenge. Melville uses Ahab's disability to build a sinister and foreboding atmosphere as, for example, when narrator Ishmael hears Ahab's false leg tapping back and forth across the deck in the middle of the night.

In fairy tales, there is the malicious *Rumpelstiltskin* and the mean witch (who "leans upon a crutch") in *Hansel and Gretel.* Classic children's literature has exploited this stereotype to the hilt. Take Stevenson's *Treasure Island.* In evoking the terror and suspense that mark this book's opening pages, the key elements are the disabled characters Black Dog and Pew. The former is introduced as a "tallow-faced man, wanting two fingers." This minor disability sets a tone that is built up when the second man is described as that "hunched and eyeless creature," and it is the latter who hands Billy Bones the dread black spot. In addition, when Long John Silver is introduced as a good guy, there is only a casual mention of the fact that he has a wooden leg. Later, when his treachery is revealed, the references to his "timber" leg become ominous and foreboding.

Examples in modern media are the maniacal and fascistic Dr. Strangelove in the movie of the same name, who has multiple disabilities; the villains in the movies *Dirty Harry*, *The Sting* and *Burn, Witch, Burn*--all of whom limp; and the profusion of disabled villains in the James Bond films.

4. The disabled person as "atmosphere." Blind musicians, newsdealers and the "blind man with a cup" are frequently thrown in for seasoning in movies and TV stories, a practice which dilutes the humanity of disabled people by reducing them to the status of colorful or curious objects. They become like Sherlock Holmes' hat and pipe or Detective Columbo's rumpled raincoat. Related to this stereotype is the depiction of disabled people as exotica. People who are displayed in so-called "freak shows" are victims of this stereotype (General Tom Thumb, a dwarf in P.T. Barnum's sideshows, is a famous example). These shows are, in a sense, disability pornography in that they encourage prurient fascination with disabilities.

5. The disabled person as "Super Crip." This stereotype is somewhat akin to the depiction of Third World characters as having "super" qualities to make them deserving of acceptance and respect by white people, except that with disability, the person is often assigned what amounts to a magical ability. "Longstreet" and "Ironsides," TV's super private eyes, are striking examples. Longstreet, who is blind, has developed superhuman hearing to offset his inability to see. Ironsides, though paralyzed, has extraordinary mental powers as well as unusual calm in the presence of adversity. His name, colloquial for wheelchair, echoes the naming of characters according to their disabilities found in many children's books. A positive feature of "Ironsides" is that the show has helped educate viewers about architectural access issues and has underscored the importance of certain aids to some physically disabled people. Unfortunately, the various ramps and other special aids available in Ironsides' fictional environment are not provided for disabled people in real life. Real-life expressions of this stereotype appear frequently on the pages of the *National Enquirer, Midnight, Readers' Digest* and other publications which regularly feature the extraordinary achievements of disabled persons who "overcome"--thus becoming a credit to their "race."

6. The disabled person as laughable. The nearsighted Mr. Magoo is the quintessential fool, epitomizing society's perceptions of certain conditions of being--in this case, physical disability--as humorous. Blissfully unaware of his nearsightedness, Magoo bumbles through life wreaking much havoc and unmindful of numerous dangers to himself. Although he survives everything, we--the aware audience--know that his survival is due only to chance and not to ingenuity on his part. The old Dean Martin/Jerry Lewis films (still being rerun on TV) often featured Lewis mimicking various disabilities and thereby soliciting many a laugh. And a recent skit on the Richard Pryor show portrayed with extraordinary insensitivity the condition of people with disabilities. Pryor apparently intended to satirize religious "quacks" who exploit people, but in the process disabled people got put down too. People who have suffered hearing loss are frequently made the butt of jokes in comedy routines when they misinterpret what is said to them.

Some stories portray a disabled person as the brunt of other people's chicanery. In the Russian folk-tale *The Little Humpbacked Horse,* Ivan the Dullard is helped out of numerous jams by the "Super Crip" horse--who has magic powers. Yet an aspect of this story, as with many similar tales, is that the one presumed to be foolish inadvertently makes fools of the so-called "normal" characters. This recurring theme is undoubtedly a kind of stereotype but one that results in poetic justice.

7. The disabled person as his/her own worst--and only--enemy. The popular media often portray disabled people as self-pitiers who could "make it" in society if only they would stop being "bitter" about their "fate," think positively and rise to The Challenge. The legitimate anger which disabled people may feel about society's abuse is misrepresented as unfounded bitterness that has its roots in the person's character. Hence, this stereotype helps "normal" people to avoid confronting the anger's true causes--which implicate the attitudes and practices of "normals" and of "normal" society. Just as victims of racist or sexist oppression are blamed for adversities they encounter, so does this stereotype place blame on disabled people for their difficulties. TV medical shows like "Marcus Welby, M.D." are some of the worst offenders here. These shows generally ignore the institutional

barriers society places in the way of disabled people, as well as the pervasive and devastating discrimination they experience....Children's authors seem to be especially fond of this stereotype, perhaps because they regard it as effective for promoting self-help and determination in young readers. But given the realities, a degree of self-pity on the part of disabled people may be quite functional and appropriate.

8. The disabled person as burden. This stereotype is linked to the concept that all people with disabilities are helpless and need to be taken care of by "normal" people. While it is true that disabled people have a range of special needs--from mild to severe--the perception that they are burdens is engendered by the difficulties our society imposes on meeting their needs. Generally speaking, a burden is something one wishes to be rid of; hence, the constant recurrence of the "burden" image in media objectifies and dehumanizes. At the same time, it can falsely enhance the image of the person who bears the "burden" at the expense of the disabled person. It's important to recognize that people with disabilities are, first and foremost, human beings who are capable of much independence and of interacting with others in mutually rewarding ways. Lenny, the mentally retarded character in *Of Mice and Men,* is an interesting case in point. While most people view Lenny as being utterly helpless and dependent on hero George, actually Lenny's physical strength provides the economic basis of George's livelihood. In addition to feeling affection and caring for Lenny, George is dependent on *him.*

9. The disabled person as non-sexual. Disabled people are almost always portrayed as totally incapable of sexual activity. Remember the song "Ruby, Don't Take Your Love to Town" that was popular during the Vietnam war years? A veteran begs his lover not to let a war injury that has incapacitated him sexually come between them. A more common manifestation of this stereotype, however, is omission of the sexual dimension from characterizations of people who are disabled. In fact, they are rarely shown in a loving relationship of any kind. The previously cited Detective Ironsides is portrayed as having *had* a love life once upon a time before he was shot in the spine, and, thus, put out of commission. His "old flames" turn up occasionally to join him in soulful reminiscences about their lost love, but nothing's happening in the here and now. (Again, although some disabilities may limit an individual's sexual activity, the assumption that disabled people are non-sexual beings is false and unreal.) Interestingly, shows are beginning to appear on TV that in some ways counter this particular stereotype. *Other Side of the Mountain*, the story of Jill Kinmont, is a particularly honest film.

The flip side of this stereotype is the portrayal of disabled persons as sex-starved or sexually degenerate (comic books are particular offenders here). Another curious reversal is that *men* with certain mild disabilities--especially ones sustained in war--are often viewed as exceptionally brave and/or sexy. This image has been effectively exploited in the "classic" ads for Hathaway shirts featuring a man with an eye patch (this campaign, first used in the 1950's, has recently been revived). Lord Nelson and Moshe Dayan are real-life examples. In a macho society, women similarly disabled are not seen in such a glamorous light.

10. The disabled person as incapable of fully participating in everyday life. This stereotype is mainly one of omission in that disabled people are rarely shown as integral and productive members of society--as part of the work force, as functioning members of families, as students or teachers, etc. The absence of such portrayals feeds the concept that disabled people are inferior human beings who should be segregated (a concept that fortunately seems to be on the way out). Movies like *Charly* and *Larry*, about mentally retarded people, reinforce this concept. Charly is presumed to be incapable of doing anything except sitting on a park swing. Larry is reintegrated into society *only* when it's discovered that he isn't retarded--the implication being that retarded people are hopeless dependents who require lifelong institutionalization. Regular inclusion of disabled people as participants in society would lend emphasis to the extremely wide range of things they *can* do, rather than to what they cannot do.

* * *

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Goal IV

PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW PARENTS AND OTHER FAMILY MEMBERS FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

Objectives and Learning Strategies

A. Relate their understanding of sex stereotyping to their family background and career-related family communications.

   1. Introductions: Career Influencers
   2. Occupational Family Tree
   3. Role Playing Family Situations
   4. Student Panel
   5. Parenting: Three Generations (Videotape)
   6. Parents as Influencers (Videotape)

B. Identify changing roles of men and women in families and occupations.

   1. Home on the Electric Range
   2. Joe Househusband
   3. Are You Hurting Your Daughter Without Knowing It?
   4. The Great Debate
   5. Emerging Career Patterns

C. Identify family and community resources and devise strategies to broaden the range of career models and options for their children.

   1. Career Learning Stations
   2. Career Roadblocks

"Introductions: Career Influencers"

IV. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW PARENTS AND OTHER FAMILY MEMBERS FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

A. Objective: Relate their understanding of sex stereotyping to their family background and career-related family communications.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity is designed to help participants explore the influence of others on their own career development. In addition, the activity can be helpful as an opening exercise to facilitate interaction among workshop participants who may not know each other.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Distribute a 5 x 8 card, a pencil, and a straight pin to each participant.

c. Instruct the participants to print their first and last names in the center of the card, then to write responses to the following statements in the designated corners of the card:

1) Top-left corner: Indicate one occupation deemed particularly appropriate for you by your parents while you were growing up.

2) Top-right corner: Indicate one occupation deemed particularly inappropriate for you by your parents while you were growing up.

3) Bottom-left corner: Write the name of the person who most influenced your first occupational choice after high school (including additional schooling and homemaking).

4) Bottom-right corner: If you could choose any occupation to be involved in at this point in your life, starting next week, what would it be?

d. Give participants three to five minutes to complete their responses, then instruct them to pin on their cards.

e. Divide the participants into heterogeneous subgroups of four to six people, and instruct them to spend 20 to 25 minutes verbally sharing the information on the cards with each other. It should be made explicit to the participants that they will need to ask questions to learn about the other members of the subgroups (e.g., Who was the person who most influenced your occupational choice? Why would you choose this particular ideal occupation?).

f. Summarize.

Alternative Strategy:

In place of c.1 through c.4, other career development-related stimulus questions may be substituted for this exercise at the discretion of the leader.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Materials: 5 x 8 cards, pencils or pens, and straight pins

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will write a short essay describing the significant influences on their own career development.

"Occupational Family Tree"*

IV. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW PARENTS AND OTHER FAMILY MEMBERS FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

A. Objective: Relate their understanding of sex stereotyping to their family background and career-related family communications.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

There are some individuals who might not feel comfortable discussing their family or their past history. If you are working with such individuals, perhaps this strategy should not be used.

While occupations are no longer passed down from father to son, mother to daughter, there is some evidence that occupational aspirations and values are passed on from generation to generation. This activity will help participants become aware of the occupational "messages" they have received and acted on.

Discussion of the strategy is critical for personal clarification and awareness of implications in the transfer of occupational aspirations and values.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Ask participants to complete the "Occupational Family Tree" worksheet showing the occupations held by their parents, grandparents, and other relatives.

c. Discuss the results, in small groups of five to six people, using the questions provided on the handout attached.

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Pencils, pens
Handouts: "Occupational Family Tree" worksheet and "Discussion Questions for 'Occupational Family Tree' "

Outcome Criterion:

After completing the "Occupational Family Tree" worksheet, participants will identify and suggest reasons for any trends that may appear in the occupations of their family members.

*Adapted from: Emily Taylor Women's Resource and Career Center (1976)

OCCUPATIONAL FAMILY TREE

Fill in the blanks with the occupation of the relative described.

______ ______ ______ ______   ______ ______ ______ ______
M F M F   M F M F
Paternal Great-Grandparents   Maternal Great-Grandparents

______ ______   ______ ______
Grandmother Grandfather   Grandmother Grandfather
Paternal   Maternal

______ ______   ______ ______
Father's Brother/Sister   Father's Brother/Sister   Mother's Brother/Sister   Mother's Brother/Sister

______   ______
Father   Mother

______ ______ ______ ______ ______
Brother   Brother   Me   Sister   Sister

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS FOR "OCCUPATIONAL FAMILY TREE"

1. What occupation is the most common in your family as far as you know?

2. What is the most common occupation on your father's side? Mother's side?

3. What occupation is the most common among the men in the family? Among the women in the family?

4. Can you see any pattern in the occupational choices of your family? What?

5. If one occupation seems to occur quite frequently, can you give reasons why it might be so?

6. Do your own occupational aspirations bear any relationship to the occupational patterns of your family? How?

7. Do you see a pattern of family occupational choices influencing the occupational choices made by your children? How?

8. What other things in your family history have influenced you?

   - family interests
   - economic status
   - family friends
   - relatives
   - attitudes of parents
   - religious connections
   - discipline
   - special family events
   - places lived
   - ethnic background
   - racial group membership
   - one-parent household
   - natural disasters (flood, tornado, etc.)
   - physical or mental disability of a family member

9. What did it mean to be masculine/feminine in your family? How does this vary with other families? By race? By economic class? By ethnicity?

10. What kinds of roles did your mother and father play in the family? In parenting? In child care? In cooking? In outdoor chores?

11. How do your own attitudes about marriage and family affect your attitudes about occupational options?

"Role Playing Family Situations"

IV. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW PARENTS AND OTHER FAMILY MEMBERS FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

A. Objective: Relate their understanding of sex stereotyping to their family background and career-related family communications.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity is designed to help participants think about and further understand the impact of parents on the career development of their children.

The leader has several options for making arrangements with participants who will be doing the role playing: the role plays can be prepared between workshop sessions, during a break in the day's schedule, or while another activity is taking place. Time demands and participants' needs both must be taken into account in deciding upon a course of action.

This activity is related to III.A.2., "School Situations: Role Plays."

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Discuss with the participants the guidelines for role playing which are found in the introductory section of this packet.

c. Some possible role-play situations (which must be discussed with the role players prior to the workshop time allocated for the role plays) are listed below:

1) A boy is trying to convince his father it is best for him to study dress designing rather than architecture.

2) A girl is trying to convince her mother that she should enlist in the army rather than attend the local secretary school.

3) A young couple is trying to explain to their parents why the wife is attending medical school while her husband works as an auto mechanic to support them until she graduates.

4) Boy announces to his parents his desire to become a home economics teacher.

5) Daughter/son comes home from school with black eye and story of how she/he defended her/himself.

d. After each role play, the leader should facilitate a discussion involving the role players and the workshop participants. Some suggested discussion questions are listed below:

1) How did it feel to be playing the role which you played?
2) What were the primary messages you were receiving from your role-playing partner? How did they make you feel?
3) With whom did the spectators empathize? Why?
4) What alternate directions could the role play have taken?
5) How could the role play have been different if the conversation took place in the context of a single-parent family?
6) What was most striking about the role play? Most surprising?

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: Allow 10 to 15 minutes for each role play, plus an additional 15 to 20 minutes for discussion.

Resources Needed:

Materials: (Optional) props for role play, and cards or slips of paper with descriptions of individual role-playing situations
Reference: Cottle (1972)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list five specific messages which they have given to their children (for parents) or to their students (for educators) regarding the acceptability of various occupational and career choices.

"Student Panel"

IV. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW PARENTS AND OTHER FAMILY MEMBERS FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

A. Objective: Relate their understanding of sex stereotyping to their family background and career-related family communications.

4. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity is designed to provide for parents and educators direct information from adolescents about career development inhibitors and facilitators. It should be noted that significant pre-planning is required for this activity, involving the selection of verbal, self-aware panel members (preferably with diverse career plans), sharing stimulus questions with the panel prior to the workshop, and perhaps even having a trial run of the panel prior to the workshop.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Introduce the panel members to the group.

c. Describe the activity format, which involves questions being directed to the panel by a moderator (probably the workshop leader). Workshop participants should be encouraged to take an active role in the presentation by asking questions.

d. Some suggested discussion questions are:

1) What is your present career/educational aspiration and who do you feel has been influential in this choice?
2) How have your parents encouraged you in this area?
3) What obstacles to your career/educational aspirations have you experienced?
4) If you decide not to marry, how do you feel your parents would react?
5) Do you feel free to choose a life style different from your parents?
6) Do you feel the selection of toys and activities you had as a younger child particularly limited or expanded your choices and options?
7) Do you feel there are any occupational/educational choices that your parents or relatives would not find acceptable? How do you know?
8) What aspirations or hopes do your parents have for you? How have they communicated these to you?
9) Do your parents usually understand you and what you are trying to do?

10) What things can parents do to help their children in preparing to make occupational decisions?
11) How can they help at specific transition points (e.g., junior to senior high, high school to post-secondary)?

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list five specific messages which they have given to their students (for educators) or to their own children (for parents) regarding the acceptability of various occupational and career choices.

"Parenting - Three Generations" (Videotape)

IV. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW PARENTS AND OTHER FAMILY MEMBERS FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

A. Objective: Relate their understanding of sex stereotyping to their family background and career-related family communications.

5. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Leader should read the viewers' guide and review Videotape No. 5, "Parenting - Three Generations," prior to using this strategy. It presents the perspective of three generations of parenting, their expectations, choices and changes in role socialization. Workshop leaders should be sensitive to the level of awareness of the audience and readiness to deal with some of the issues presented.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of strategy.

b. Introduce the tape as a tool to help people think about the influence, effects, and power of parenting.

c. Read to the audience the segment from the viewers' guide on BORN FREE concepts and definitions.

d. Show the 30-minute color videotape.

e. Discuss in small groups of five to seven. Suggested discussion questions might include:

1) In retrospect, how does Dr. Jeannette Piccard see her role as parent? What do you think she means by allowing the children to "do their own suffering"? How are you allowing your children to do their own suffering? In what ways did you do your own suffering? In what ways might that view be related to the concept of learned helplessness?
2) Dr. Hansen mentions "the outer limits of human possibilities." What might have been or yet might be the outer limits of your possibilities? In what ways can we better provide for our children's reaching the outer limits of their humanness?
3) Evie Donald says she and Bill are in a couple of different places in their awareness of sexism. Where are you and your partner, parents, family? Whose level of awareness are you closest to?
4) What were some "shoulds" and "should nots" in Dr. Jeannette Piccard's life? In your parents' lives? In your children's lives? How did her parents' expectations of her life differ from her own expectations? How did her parents differ from yours? Yours differ from your children's? Which did Dr. Piccard follow? Which did you follow? Which parent's expectations are your children following?

5) Guidance played an important role in Dr. Piccard's life at a crucial time. How did it become an essential ingredient in the happiness of her own children? What risks did she take in seeking guidance? In what ways might our children's lives profit through our seeking guidance?
6) What does Dr. Hansen mean by "bias-free person-centered parenting"? What is an example from your life? Is there any way to become bias free?
7) How does Harriett Haynes see experiences for her children as different from what she experienced? If parents follow through on their convictions about sex-role free child rearing, how will messages that they give to their children be different?

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 5 minutes - introduction
30 minutes for tape
25 minutes for discussion

Resources Needed:

Materials: Videotape No. 5, "Parenting - Three Generations"
Video Viewers' Guide No. 5: Parenting - Three Generations

Outcome Criterion:

After viewing and discussing the tape, each viewer will identify three of the most significant strengths to positive parenting.

"Parents as Influencers" - Videotape

IV. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW PARENTS AND OTHER FAMILY MEMBERS FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

A. Objective: Relate their understanding of sex stereotyping to their family background and career-related family communications.

6. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Leader should read the viewers' guide and review Videotape No. 6, "Parents as Influencers," prior to using this strategy. The purpose of this strategy is to heighten people's awareness of the influence (positive and negative) parents have on their children's career decisions. Within the videotape to be shown, the influences of fathers and mothers are separately discussed, a sketch of a family in transition is presented, and examples of emergent parents are given. Workshop leaders should be sensitive to the level of awareness and the audience readiness to deal with some of the issues discussed.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of strategy.

b. Introduce the tape as a tool to help people think about their influence as parents upon their children's career decisions.

c. Read to the audience the segment from the viewers' guide on BORN FREE concepts and definitions.

d. Show the 30-minute color videotape.

e. Discuss in small groups of five to seven. Suggested discussion questions might include:

   1) Look back on your own career development. How did your parents influence your career decisions? Which were more influential, their own careers (work and family roles) or the advice they gave?

   2) How conscious are you of your own influence on your children's career decisions - the toys you buy; the TV shows and books your children watch and read; your feelings about your career and your spouse's career; messages about "shoulds" and "should nots" you give your children; statements you make about your friends and your children's friends?

   3) When do parental responsibilities for guiding their children's development stop and give way to children's right to make their own career decisions? How can parents provide guidance without taking away the rights and responsibilities of their children?

4) In general, do fathers exert or wield an influence different from the influence exercised by mothers? Is a father's influence more or less powerful? Do fathers have special influence with their sons or daughters?

5) Gary Edwards, the male telephone operator, made the statement that people usually want to follow in their father's footsteps to a degree. What do you think he meant by his statement? What factors influence children to choose to follow or not to follow in their father's footsteps?

6) In discussing her father, Carol Hasegawa, the Asian female graduate student, noted that her father was different from many fathers whose image of "masculinity" limited their role as a parent. Do you feel that our present concept of masculinity severely limits what men can and should do as fathers? If yes, how?

7) Concerning the influence of mothers, Dr. Hansen indicated that many of the fears about working or employed mothers are based more on myth than reality. What is your opinion about the effects of mothers working? What are the myths and what are the realities? What does the research literature say?

8) Marilyn Gorlin, the female administrator and parent, talked about nurturing as the greatest role anybody could play. Do you feel mothers are generally more nurturing with their children than are fathers? Why or why not? As a result of the feminist movement, do you think mothers are becoming less involved with their children and starting to think more of their own needs rather than always putting their children's needs first? Is this good or bad? Why? What about fathers - are they becoming more involved with their children as a result of the men's movement?

9) Within the videotape, Winn Jeffries recalls how she and her family responded to crises that this family was facing. Can you relate to any of the problems and feelings encountered by this family? How is your family situation different from or similar to this family's?

10) In the last segment of the tape, different parents share how they have identified or adapted their roles as parents. From listening to these parents, what do you see as the primary advantages or payoffs to parents who have switched over to shared and flexible responsibilities? What are the difficulties or disadvantages encountered in giving up specific sex-linked parent roles?

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 5 minutes introduction
30 minutes for tape
25 minutes for discussion

Resources Needed:

Materials: Videotape No. 6, "Parents as Influencers"
Video Viewers' Guide No. 6: Parents as Influencers

Outcome Criterion:

After viewing and discussing the tape, each participant will be able to state (1) how his/her own career development was influenced by his/her parents and/or (2) three ways he/she would hope to influence his/her own children.

"Home on the Electric Range"

IV. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW PARENTS AND OTHER FAMILY MEMBERS FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

B. Objective: Identify changing roles of men and women in families and occupations.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

The division of household tasks by sex and/or family member may reflect and perpetuate important career- and sex-role messages.

By analysis of these tasks in this framework, participants can become aware of how and why they determine certain roles for family members.

Be sure to stress career implications for children as a result of the responsibilities they are assigned or permitted to do.

Discussion of responses of single-parent families and/or members of minority groups to this activity may open discussion on the different problems and situations they may face.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Hand out copies of "Home on the Electric Range" to all participants.

c. Tell participants:

"In this handout are 30 household tasks which are performed most of the time by one family member. Place an X under the family member who most often performs each task. Some of the tasks may not be appropriate for your situation. In those cases, please respond as you believe they would be performed. Allow 15 minutes for completion."

d. After completion of the questionnaires, divide participants into groups of five to six people. Choose a recorder and discussion leader in each group. Have each mini-group fill out a group tally sheet.

e. Pick the tasks with the greatest discrepancy and discuss the following questions, allowing 45 minutes for completion and discussion.

1) Discuss reasons why one sex was the dominant task performer.
2) What kinds of implications does this have in terms of role models for children (i.e., what messages are being given)?
3) Would your responses be identical to those of your same sex parent? How do you explain any differences which exist?

    4) Do people often assume a family must have two parents? What are some special considerations for single-parent families?
    5) Would membership in a minority population influence responses to the questionnaire? In what ways?

f. Participants will respond to the following questions in large-group discussions (and/or in their journals) (allow 30 minutes):

    1) Based on your experiences today, what kinds of changes in task responsibilities might you make in your home?
    2) What creative plans for sharing task responsibilities (both inside and outside) have families in the group developed?
    3) In what ways do the task divisions in your home inhibit/facilitate career options for yourself? Your partner? Children? Others?
    4) How do you communicate about task division and household responsibilities within your family?
    5) Do you communicate to your children your rationale for task division? If so, how?
    6) Create an ideal model for making decisions about task responsibilities.

g. Summarize in large group.

Minimum Time Required: 1½ hours

Resources Needed:

Materials: Pens or pencils
Handouts: "Home on the Electric Range" questionnaire

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will be able to discuss their ideal models for making decisions about task responsibilities.

IV.B.1.
(cont'd)

HOME ON THE ELECTRIC RANGE

Listed below are 30 household tasks which are performed most of the time by one family member. Place an X by the family member who most often performs each task. Some of the tasks may not be appropriate for your situation. In those cases, please respond as you believe they would be performed. Allow 15 minutes for completion.

Household Task	Man/ Husband	Son	Woman/ Wife	Daughter	Other
1. Preparing breakfast					
2. Making bed					
3. Carrying out garbage					
4. Mowing the lawn					
5. Washing dishes					
6. Washing clothes					
7. Ironing					
8. Chauffeuring kids					
9. Grocery shopping					
10. Scheduling doctor/dentist appointments for children					
11. Paying bills					
12. Figuring out income tax					
13. Washing car					
14. Preparing dinner					
15. Vacuuming					
16. Interior painting					
17. Exterior painting					
18. Splitting firewood					
19. Pruning trees and bushes					
20. Shoveling snow					
21. Buying clothes for children					
22. Disciplining children					
23. Driving the car on family outings					
24. Minor house repairs (i.e., electrical, mechanical)					
25. Determining menu					
26. Taking child to doctor/ dentist					
27. Calling babysitters					
28. Planting flowers					
29. Clearing the table					
30. Going to PTA					

"Joe Househusband"

IV. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW PARENTS AND OTHER FAMILY MEMBERS FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

B. Objective: Identify changing roles of men and women in families and occupations.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This can be a powerful and threatening activity for some participants. It is difficult for some persons to reverse traditional roles for the sexes in this relationship. Others may argue that it promotes stereotyping. It is important that partners be female and male, not same sex, and that adequate time be given for completing the exercise. The "trust level" of the group should be moderate to high for this exercise. Both parts of the activity should be used in the sequence given below.

There are two parts to this activity. Part 1 involves participants' writing a role-reversal scenario about a male househusband, focusing on the stereotypic duties traditionally assigned to a homemaker. Part 2 centers on issues involved in a dual-career marriage. The format for Part 2 is also a scenario.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Part 1: Have participants pair up (preferably with a person of the other sex) and ask them to write a scenario entitled "A Typical Day in the Life of Joe Househusband." This scenario should describe the stereotypic role of the homemaker who is not employed outside the home and who has two preschool children, one of each sex. In this scenario, however, the roles have been reversed in that the person staying at home with the children is the husband, Joe Househusband. Allow participants 15 minutes to write their scenarios.

c. After participants have completed their scenarios, allow 30 minutes to share their stories in small groups of six. Then discuss; suggested questions are:

1) What was your initial response to Joe's situation? Why?
2) How might Joe's role modeling as a househusband affect his children's attitudes toward family duties?
3) What do you envision as the attitudes of the neighbors (male and female) towards Joe? Will he be invited to the neighborhood "coffee"?
4) How will Joe's parents react?
5) Who would be considered the dominant member of the family by friends? Social groups?

6) What kinds of controversial reactions might occur socially, e.g., the wife's being asked what her husband does for a living?
7) If you are married: As a wife, could you see your husband in that role? Why or why not? As a husband, could you see yourself in that role? Why or why not?
8) How would your scenario have differed if the roles played had been of people from different racial, economic, or other groups?

d. Part 2: Ask participants to write another scenario staying with the same partner. This scenario will involve Joe and Judy who are married and have two preschool children. Both adults work full time. They have an agreement in which the family and household responsibilities are shared. Instruct participants to consider such issues as arrangements for child care; household tasks of cleaning, cooking, and laundry; doctor appointments for the children; etc. Allow participants 15 minutes to write their scenarios and 30 minutes to read their stories and discuss in small groups of six people.

e. After they have completed their scenarios, ask them to form small groups of six and share their stories--then discuss; suggested questions are:

1) Which scenario did you feel most comfortable writing? Why?
2) What advantages can the couple experience as a result of the dual-career, shared-responsibility agreement? What would be some disadvantages?
3) What advantages do you see for the children of this dual-career marriage? Disadvantages?
4) What might be the reactions of the neighbors to this family?
5) How would the scenario have differed if the parents belonged to a minority, e.g., Asian-American? Were physically disabled?
6) What are some other scenarios you could write?

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: Part 1: 45 minutes
Part 2: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Paper and pens, pencils

Outcome Criteria:

Participants will have completed the scenarios and listed five advantages or disadvantages of a dual-career, shared-responsibility marriage.

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-L

IV.B.3.

"Are You Hurting Your Daughter Without Knowing It?"

IV. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW PARENTS AND OTHER FAMILY MEMBERS FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

B. Objective: Identify changing roles of men and women in families and occupations.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity can be best applied with parents in raising their awareness of how they socialize their children. Although the article emphasizes the damaging effects of career-related sex-role stereotyping on girls, also try to direct discussion to consideration of its effects on boys. (See also anthology edited by Pleck and Sawyer, 1974.) The attempt to discuss what can be done to facilitate widening of career options for both sexes is critical.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Have participants read "Are You Hurting Your Daughter Without Knowing It?"

c. Discuss in small groups:

   1) Have you come across some of the beliefs and practices which the author describes? Do these beliefs and practices apply equally to all minority groups?
   2) Can you identify some of the beliefs and practices in your own relationships with your children?
   3) Which beliefs and practices do you think should be changed in order to allow more egalitarian career options? What problems will you encounter? Discuss ways to deal with the problems.

d. Summarize in large group.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Attached article: "Are You Hurting Your Daughter Without Knowing It?" (Eliasberg, 1971)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list five beliefs and practices that affect the career options of their children.

ARE YOU HURTING YOUR DAUGHTER WITHOUT KNOWING IT?[1]

By Ann Eliasberg

Recently, a delegation of young women--university teachers and students--presented their ideas about discrimination against females and stereotyping in the schools to an all-male group of school superintendents attending a two-week conference at Teachers College of Columbia University. The conference subject was early childhood education. And yet, as the women who politely crashed the conference pointed out to these men, they had not even considered a "vital aspect of the early education of all children, namely the ways in which children learn that they are male and female and what they learn about being male and female."

The young women presented a well-documented argument to support their case that in school, girls are taught to have fewer aspirations than men, because fewer opportunities lie open to them. The argument was so persuasive that one conference observer, a mother with daughters, 12 and 16, and a son of 10, was moved to conduct an informal survey of books commonly found in children's libraries or used in schools throughout the country.

"I was appalled," she reports. "I thought the suffragettes had solved the whole question of women's rights and that any problems that still remained were settled in the 1920s and 1940s. But to read some of these books, you'd think that women not only haven't achieved anything in science or art or politics, but that they aren't even interested in such matters."

The same mother discovered, in books for preschool children and in the elementary-grade readers and recreational literature to be found on any school or public library shelf, how limited a role in society we mark out for women. For example, in a series of basic readers used in many private and public schools, a second-grade reader starts out with a description of how our country might look to an astronaut. The country he surveys has men taking most of the active, achieving roles, and women generally portrayed as homemakers, nurses or teachers. In a book that focuses on historical figures, youngsters learn about George Washington Carver, King Alfred, Robert Bruce, William Tell, Alexander the Great, Copernicus, Galileo, Johannes Kepler, Henry Ford and the Wright brothers. Searching for feminine greats (Queen Elizabeth, perhaps, or Joan of Arc?), a diligent reader will finally come upon two: Nurse Florence Nightingale (not pioneer doctor Elizabeth Blackwell) and the Negro educator Mary McLeod Bethune. Mrs. Bethune and Negro contralto Marian Anderson are often among the few women who appear in books about important people in American life; rather a one-token-buys-two-rides approach.

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[1] From: Eliasberg, A. Are you hurting your daughter without knowing it? Family Circle, February, 1971. Permission to reprint granted by Family Circle. c 1971 by The Family Circle, Inc. All rights reserved.

Moving down the shelf, a book that offers brief biographies of Benjamin West, Benjamin Franklin and most of the presidents of the United States, also informs its readers that William Cullen Bryant was America's first great poet. Why no mention of Emily Dickinson, whom most critics consider far greater? Or Anne Bradstreet, first poet of either sex on American shores?

Children invest a great deal of their intellects and imaginations in the world they meet in schoolbooks. What kind of women inhabit this world? Many books have invented a vapid, generalized, "typical" American woman. We meet this feminine figure in, for example, a series of children's books about a school-age boy named Peter. Peter's father, Mr. Sills, works at a proving ground for space missiles that conveniently allows Peter to be in on the excitement of rocket building, rocket testing, moon shooting and the like. Throughout the series, Peter's mother and his sister, Linda, never visit the proving ground or show any interest in space matters. At one point, Mrs. Sills invites Dr. Dan, a scientist friend of her husband, to visit the Sills home. She adds archly, "I will even let you and John talk about space now and then." When one considers this literary characterization in light of the fact that approximately 40 million women, as compared with 36 million men, viewed our astronauts' first step on the moon in July, 1969, one wants to ask where the author of the Peter series (a woman) gets her ideas about female America.

The fact is, more children's books are about boys than about girls, and the girls and women who do appear are usually passive, undifferentiated characters. When Mark and Rich, in another children's series, visit the Mayan ruins of Mexico, their professor-guide is a man, and when they make an underseas journey, they are again part of an all-male team. A reasonably well-informed woman will feel puzzled as she browses through such juveniles. Didn't archaeologist Iris Love head a team that discovered a temple of Aphrodite in Turkey? And didn't five women aquanauts spend two weeks in an underseas laboratory habitat, studying the ecology of sea life? Or if these events are too recent, what about Marie Curie's discovery of radium or Lise Meitner's contribution to the splitting of the atom?

Of course, there are books in which girls figure as principal characters: Cherry Ames is a student nurse, Vicki Barr a flight stewardess, and Peggy Lane an aspiring actress. But these girls seem somewhat pallid beside Tom Swift, budding scientist, and Tom Corbett, space explorer. The one exception, the girl who outsells them all--more than a million copies in one year as compared with 40,000 for Cherry Ames--is Nancy Drew, who tootles about the country in her roadster, solving mysteries and living a life of freedom and adventure. Interestingly, a psychoanalyst, the late Dr. Lili Peller, discovered in a study on the reading habits of school-age boys and girls that Nancy Drew's image satisfies the young girl's daydream that "maybe I can be a boy."

Educational and vocational guidance counselors should, of course, help every student, girl and boy, to set his or her sights as high as abilities warrant. But, as specialists in this area have discovered, not all of them do. Eli Ginzberg, director of Columbia University's Conservation of Human Resources Project, points out that girls often receive inferior vocational and educational guidance. "A lot of vocational counselors have outdated ideas about men's jobs and women's jobs," he declares. Also, many parents still think in terms of career aspirations for their sons but not necessarily for their daughters.

Of course, realists will point out that men are usually the chief breadwinners. But doesn't the male-breadwinning argument conveniently ignore the fact that of the approximately 30 million women in our labor force, the majority of them work from financial necessity, many because they head their households? Denying them equal education and job opportunities merely restricts them to jobs that require low skills and pay low wages. Many girls settle for low-skill jobs in fields only vaguely related to the one they really care about, which might be law, medicine or social work. Furthermore, most graduate schools do not encourage women who have interrupted their studies for marriage to come back on a part-time basis, although many women have successfully earned graduate degrees while running a home and rearing children.

Perhaps this is as good a time as any to rake over that old chestnut about a woman's work-life damaging her children. Research has not really shown a causal relationship between maladjustment in children and a mother's hours outside the home, but the main fallacy is the either/or that is built into the argument. "Unquestionably," says Dr. Aaron Esman, psychiatrist, "the best climate for the development of a child's sense of self and his relationships with other people is a close, loving and consistent association with his mother, or mother-person, until about his third year." But that doesn't mean that a child must be in his mother's sole care 24 hours a day. In fact, Dr. Esman sees some definite advantages in a pattern whereby both a wife and husband might share breadwinning and child-rearing responsibilities, and when the crucial early years are passed, pscyhiatrists agree that some pattern that involves a woman in meaningful outside work is usually better for her, her husband and her children than total concentration on the home.

Parents still tend to be fearful that girls who love sports and excel in math or science are "masculine," while boys who help with the dishes and like music and poetry are "feminine." But there is simply no valid reason for discouraging a girl's or boy's natural inclinations. If Judy likes to refinish furniture, experiment with test tubes or stargaze through a telescope, and her father or mother can enjoy these activities with her, Judy is a lucky girl. She gains a sense of acceptance by her parents that is like courage in the bank for future challenges.

How often, though, do parents unconsciously undermine the work they consciously try to do, praising a girl for her looks and her clothes and a boy for his ideas and achievements, thereby setting up a double standard that children will surely detect?

The consensus of psychological thought relates the disparities in the achievement of boys and girls to early conditioning as often as to inherent factors of superiority or inferiority.

The message is clear. Setting overly protective limits on the world a small girl can explore both physically and mentally, playing up her looks and playing down her ideas, setting standards for her that are subtly different from those set for her brother, concentrating on his educational and vocational goals to the neglect of hers--in all these ways parents, often unintentionally, restrict their daughter's total growth. As she comes to accept (or resign herself to) such restrictions, she may also come to identify herself with the passive female stereotypes she meets in books, in movies and on television. She is especially likely to accept them if we, as parents, provide no more satisfactory models. And the diminished self-image that is a natural consequence of such conditioning may be permanently fixed as she is guided toward educational goals below her capabilities. The common rationale for this all-too-common practice is: "You'll marry and have children anyway."

She probably will. So do most men. And in the course of a long life she will be called upon to play many other roles. Reared according to our current attitudes and methods, how well will she be equipped to enjoy them? Will she be a well-stacked, well-deodorized expert at keeping clothes white, or will she be a fully functioning adult human being?

SUGGESTED READING LIST FOR YOUR DAUGHTER

For Preschool Readers

All Kinds of Mothers by Cecily Brownstone (David McKay)
Ann Can Fly by Fred Phleger (Random House Beginner Books)
Mommies at Work by Eve Meriam (Alfred A. Knopf)
Noisy Nancy Norris by Lou Ann Gaedderr (Doubleday)
Noisy Nancy and Nick by Lou Ann Graedderr (Doubleday)
Rosa-to-Little by Sue Felt (Doubleday)

Textbooks for Learning to Read

Bank Street Readers (Macmillan)

For 3rd- to 6th-grade Readers

Around the World with Nellie Bly by Emily Hahn (Houghton Mifflin)
Barefoot in the Grass by William H. Armstrong (Doubleday)
Island of Blue Dolphins by Scott O'Dell (Houghton Mifflin)
Harriet the Spy and The Long Secret by Louise Fitzhugh (Harper & Row)
Pippi Longstocking, and sequels by Astrid Lindgren (Viking)
Swallows and Amazons, and sequels by Arthur Ransome (Lippincott)
Veronica Ganz by Marily Sachs (Doubleday)
Shirley Chisholm by Susan Brownmiller (Doubleday)

For 7th-grade Readers and Up

The Empty Moat by Margarethe Shemin (Coward McCann)
Time of Trial by Hester Burton (World Publishers)

Somebody's Angel Child, The Story of Bessie Smith by Carman Moore (Thomas Y. Crowell)
Famous American Women by Hope Stoddard (Thomas Y. Crowell)

Books About Women's Rights for 7th-grade Readers and Up

Free But Not Equal by Bill Severn (Messner)
Lucretia Mott by Dorothy Sterling (Doubleday)
Petticoat Politics by Doris Faber (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard)

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

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P/E SR-M/H IV.B.4.
CD-M TL-H

"The Great Debate"

IV. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW PARENTS AND OTHER FAMILY MEMBERS FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

B. Objective: Identify changing roles of men and women in families and occupations.

4. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy will help participants in a variety of ways: 1) clarify their opinions by verbalizing their views, 2) improve their perspective on sex-role issues by taking opposing viewpoints, and 3) develop rationales for their views that will aid them in implementing BORN FREE in their institutions.

The activity may best be used at the end of a training sequence, when participants have an adequate knowledge base in sex roles and career development for the debate. Note that the strategy deals mainly with two-parent families and would not be appropriate in groups with a high proportion of single-parent families.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Debate the following:

"Men and women should have the option to share equally in the responsibility for care of the children."

c. Have participants choose a partner. Have the person on the left (from the leader) take a negative position and the person on the right (from the leader) take an affirmative position.

d. Instruct them to talk, continuously defending their position, listing as many reasons as they can (valid or invalid) for their positions.

e. After 5 minutes, have the partners switch positions.

f. After 5-10 minutes, stop the activity. Have participants share what they learned from the activity.

g. Other possibilities for mini-debates are:

1) Men should be under more pressure to succeed in an occupation than women.

2) Women and men should have the option to work outside the home when their children are young.

3) Children should share equally in all household chores.

h. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30-40 minutes

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list three pro and three con arguments in regard to egalitarian parenting.

P/E SR-M
CD-M TL-L

IV.B.5.

"Emerging Career Patterns"

IV. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW PARENTS AND OTHER FAMILY MEMBERS FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

B. Objective: Identify changing roles of men and women in families and occupations.

5. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

People often tend to think of job choices as apart from family choices. Increasingly society is defining career more broadly to include the choices women and men make in both work and family. Although for many years the traditional nuclear family (with mother at home, caring for children, father at work) was the predominant pattern, today it is recognized that there are many different career patterns from the traditional to the role reversal in which the woman is the breadwinner and the man is at home. Some of these patterns are listed on the handout entitled "Emerging Career Patterns."

Invite people in the community to be part of a panel on "Career Patterns." While all patterns may not be available, include a sufficient variety so that participants are exposed to the advantages and disadvantages of each. Where there are partners in a pattern (e.g., dual-career family), try to have both on the panel. Be sure that the panel includes multiethnic representation as well as singles, marrieds, etc.

If there is not time to plan a panel, leader can present an overhead of the emerging career patterns with explanations of each and invite participants to indicate whether they know people who are living these patterns and to comment on them.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have members generate questions including some or all of these:

  1) How did you choose the career pattern you are in?
  2) What are some of the advantages of your particular pattern?
  3) What are some of the disadvantages?
  4) If you had your life to live over, would you choose the same pattern?
  5) Who were the major influencers of your decisions?
  6) What kinds of reactions, positive or negative, do/did you experience from friends, family, or co-workers regarding this pattern?
  7) What part did your race, economic class, age, or physical disability play in your career pattern?

c. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour or more

Resources Needed:

Community resource persons from a variety of career patterns
Handout: "Emerging Career Patterns"

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list at least five career patterns and the major advantage and disadvantage of each.

EMERGING CAREER PATTERNS[*]

-- TRADITIONAL FAMILY - Two parents with children, mother at home, father works

-- DUAL CAREER OR EMPLOYED - Two partners work for pay outside home, may or may not have children

-- SINGLE CAREER - Person remains single, employed over time; no children

-- EQUAL PARTNERSHIPS - Two partners work for pay outside home; consciously share household tasks and childrearing

-- SINGLE PARENT - Single person combines work and childrearing, sometimes by crisis, sometimes by choice

-- SINGLE ADOPTIVE PARENT - Single employed person adopts child or children

-- MARRIED NON-PARENTS - May be dual employed or traditional but no children

-- SHARED POSITION - Two persons share one paid job equally or in proportion (1/3, 2/3); may be couples or unrelated

--SHARED CAREER - One person's occupation defines role for the other; also called "absorptive career" (e.g., corporate executive, minister, college president)

-- ROLE-REVERSAL PATTERN - Husband is home, doing the household tasks; wife is employed

-- VOLUNTEER CAREER - Continuous involvement in non-paid work over time; has been female pattern; high commitment

-- NON-WORK PATTERN - Persons who cannot obtain paid work or choose not to work

-- ALTERNATIVE ECONOMIC LIFE STYLE - Two or more persons who devise alternative patterns such as communes, extended family, where new types of interpersonal and economic relationships are developed

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[*] L. Sunny Hansen, 1977

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-L

IV.C.1.

"Career Learning Stations"

IV. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW PARENTS AND OTHER FAMILY MEMBERS FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

C. Objective: Identify family and community resources and devise strategies to broaden the range of career models and options for their children.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity provides an opportunity for participants to get first-hand information about career development influences from people in various occupations. Considerable pre-planning is necessary for this activity, especially in making arrangements for resource persons. Resource persons should reflect the racial diversity of our society.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Introduce the people from the community who will serve as resource persons about atypical occupational choices. Some examples of such occupations are listed below, but workshop leaders should feel free to make whatever changes are necessary to facilitate this activity.

   1) female physician
   2) male nurse
   3) female truck driver
   4) male secretary
   5) female laborer
   6) male kindergarten/primary-level teacher
   7) male flight attendant

c. Note the particular areas of the workshop room where each of the above persons will be located.

d. Instruct the participants to interact with each of the resource persons during a 30-45 minute period (the number of workshop participants will determine the time necessary). Specifically, each resource person should be questioned about the following career-related topics:

   1) Did you have a model who strongly influenced and approved of your decision?
   2) Were your parents supportive of your occupational choice or not?
   3) Were there any particularly negative or positive reactions from other students while you were training for your occupation?
   4) What kinds of reactions have you experienced from your co-workers?
   5) In general, what or who most inhibited and facilitated your

choice?

6) What are the advantages and disadvantages for you of choosing a nontraditional occupation?

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list at least five important inhibiting and facilitating factors affecting the occupations of the resource persons.

P/E SR-M
CD-L TL-L

IV.C.2.

"Career Roadblocks"

IV. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF HOW PARENTS AND OTHER FAMILY MEMBERS FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

C. Objective: Identify family and community resources and devise strategies to broaden the range of career models and options for their children.

2. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Divide the participants into heterogeneous groups of five to six people and ask each group to select a recorder.

c. Give each group two or more of the occupations from each column listed below and instruct them to make a list of roadblocks which might be encountered when a person of the designated sex plans to enter that field. Allow 15 minutes for this phase of the activity.

Possible occupations for this activity are listed below. Workshop leaders should feel free to substitute other occupations which may be more meaningful for their particular workshop population:

f1) female airline pilot
f2) female truck driver
f3) female veterinarian
f4) female auto mechanic
f5) female crane operator

m1) male nurse
m2) male preschool or elementary teacher
m3) male flight attendant
m4) male secretary
m5) male home economics teacher

d. Then ask the groups to list ways to counteract the roadblocks discussed in c. above. Another 15 minutes should be allocated for this activity.

e. Finally, ask the groups to identify and list as many sources of support as they can for people making these occupational choices. An additional 15 minutes should be set aside for this phase of the activity.

f. Summarize.

Alternative Strategy:

a. Direct participants individually to list jobs in which one sex is under-represented.

b. After 10 minutes, ask the participants whether female under-represented jobs or male under-represented jobs were easier to think of and why.

c. Using jobs from their own list (or from c. above) participants then can follow the above steps b. through e.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Materials: Paper; pens or pencils for recorders

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list five general roadblocks to nontraditional occupations for men and women.

Goal V

PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF WAYS IN WHICH RELIGIOUS AND PHILOSOPHICAL VALUES MAY FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

Objectives and Learning Strategies

A. Identify and discuss the interaction between various value systems and life/career expectations for women and men.

   1. Ways to Life: A Values Exercise

   2. Time Pie

B. Identify ways in which religious doctrine, language, and leadership roles influence the sex-role socialization and career development of women and men.

   1. Jesus Was a Feminist

   2. New Language for the Gospel

   3. Career Patterns and Religious Institutions

   4. Men and Women in Religious Leadership Roles

"Ways to Live: A Values Exercise"

V. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF WAYS IN WHICH RELIGIOUS AND PHILOSOPHICAL VALUES MAY FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

A. Objective: Identify and discuss the interaction between various value systems and life/career expectations for women and men.

1. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Pass out to each participant "Ways to Live," copies of descriptions of thirteen life styles, and ask them to read and rank-order the items in terms of preference from 1 (most desirable) to 13 (least desirable) as ways they themselves would most like to live.

c. Ask participants to write a personal ideal life style description, using statements from any of the descriptions and/or their own ideas.

d. Each participant next chooses a partner with a different occupation from his/her own (if possible) and discusses the similarities and differences in life style choices.

e. Finally, each participant is asked to list five things she/he has done within the last two weeks which are consistent with his/her desired personal life style and five things that are not consistent with it.

After the list is completed, she/he is asked to go back over it and to mark a W by those activities that are job or work related. (If time permits, discuss in small groups.)

f. Summarize in large group.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Materials: Pencils, paper
Handout: "Ways to Live" (Simon et al. 1972)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will complete a personal value statement and list of work-related activities.

STRATEGY NUMBER 67: WAYS TO LIVE[1]

PURPOSE

This strategy asks students to formulate their own philosophy of life by responding to 13 other ways to live. It leads to the consideration of alternative life styles, and causes students to more thoughtfully consider their own life styles.

PROCEDURE

The teacher passes out copies of the worksheet, Ways to Live. (See below.) When students have responded to the 13 ways to live, they are to rank order all 13, from their first preference to their last.

The teacher then has the students choose partners. Each pair discusses one or two ways to live to which they had quite different reactions. They spend five minutes discussing their differences and trying to understand the other person's point of view. Then each one finds a new partner and repeats the discussion procedure. This may be repeated several times.

Then, each student writes out his own way to live statement, reflecting his own philosophy of life at this point in his life. Students can borrow phrases or sentences from any of the 13 described here, or they can create their own wording and ideas.

Finally, students are asked to think of ten things they have done in the last week that are consistent with the philosophy of life or the way to live they have just described. This bridges the gap between a general philosophical statement and the way we actually live.

I Wonder Statements (Strategy Number 16) are a good conclusion to this thought-provoking exercise.

WORKSHEET

Ways to Live[2]

Instructions: Below are described thirteen ways to live which various persons, at various times, have advocated and followed.

You are to write numbers in the margin to indicate how much you yourself like or dislike each of these ways to live. Do them in order, one after the other.

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[1] From Values Clarification: A Handbook of Practical Strategies for Teachers and Students by Sidney B. Simon, Leland W. Howe and Howard Kirschebaum, copyright 1972 Hart Publishing Company, Inc.

[2] Reproduced with permission of author: Questionnaire from Varieties of Human Value by Charles Morris, University of Chicago Press, 1956, pp. 15-19.

Remember that it is not a question of what kind of life you now lead, or the kind of life you think it prudent to live in our society, or the kind of life you think would be good for other persons, but simply the kind of life you personally would like to live.

Use the following scale, and write one of these numbers in the margin alongside each of the ways to live:

7 I like it *very much*
6 I like it *quite a lot*
5 I like it *slightly*
4 I am *indifferent to* it
3 I dislike it *slightly*
2 I dislike it *quite a lot*
1 I dislike it *very much*

WAY 1: In this design for living the individual actively participates in the social life of his community, not primarily to change it but to understand, appreciate, and preserve the best that man has attained. In this life style, excessive desires are avoided and moderation is sought. One wants the good things of life, but in an orderly way. Life is to have clarity, balance, refinement, control. Vulgarity, great enthusiasm, irrational behavior, impatience, indulgence are to be avoided. Friendship is to be esteemed, but not easy intimacy with many people. Life is marked by discipline, intelligibility, good manners, predictability. Social changes are to be made slowly and carefully, so that what has been achieved in human culture is not lost. The individual is active physically and socially, but not in a hectic or radical way. Restraint and intelligence should give order to an active life.

WAY 2: In this way of life, the individual for the most part goes it alone, assuring himself of privacy in living quarters, having much time to himself, attempting to control his own life. Emphasis is on self-sufficiency, reflection and meditation, knowledge of oneself. Intimate associations and relationships with social groups are to be avoided, as are the physical manipulation of objects and attempts at control of the physical environment. One should aim to simplify one's external life, to moderate desires which depend upon physical and social forces outside of oneself. One concentrates on refinement, clarification, and self-direction. Not much is to be gained by living outwardly. One must avoid dependence upon persons or things; the center of life should be found within oneself.

WAY 3 This way of life makes central the sympathetic concern for other persons. Affection is the main thing in life, affection that is free from all traces of the imposition of oneself upon others, or of using others for one's own purposes. Greed in possessions, emphasis on sexual passion, striving for power over persons and things, excessive emphasis upon intellect, and undue concern for oneself are to be avoided. These things hinder the sympathetic love among persons which alone gives significance to life. Aggressiveness blocks receptivity to the forces which foster genuine personal growth. One should purify oneself, restrain one's self-assertiveness, and become receptive, appreciative, and helpful in relating to other persons.

WAY 4: Life is something to be enjoyed--sensuously enjoyed, enjoyed with relish and abandonment. The aim in life should not be to control the course of the world or to change society or the lives of others, but to be open and receptive to things and persons, and to delight in them. Life is a festival not a workshop or a school for moral discipline. To let oneself go, to let things and persons affect oneself, is more important than to do--or to do good. Such enjoyment requires that one be self-centered enough to be keenly aware of what is happening within in order to be free for new happiness. One should avoid entanglements, should not be too dependent on particular people or things, should not be self-sacrificing; one should be alone a lot, should have time for meditation and awareness of oneself. Both solitude and sociability are necessary for the good life.

WAY 5: This way of life stresses the social group rather than the individual. A person should not focus on himself, withdraw from people, be aloof and self-centered. Rather he should merge himself with a social group, enjoy cooperation and companionship, join with others in resolute activity for the realization of common goals. Persons are social and persons are active; life should merge energetic group activity and cooperative group enjoyment. Meditation, restraint, concern for one's self-sufficiency, abstract intellectuality, solitude, stress on one's possessions all cut the roots which bind persons together. One should live outwardly with gusto, enjoying the good things of life, working with others to secure the things which make possible a pleasant and energetic social life. Those who oppose this ideal are not to be dealt with too tenderly. Life can't be too fastidious.

WAY 6: This philosophy sees life as dynamic and the individual as an active participant. Life continuously tends to stagnate, to become comfortable, to become sicklied o'er with the pale cast of thought. Against these tendencies, a person must stress the need for constant activity--physical action, adventure, the realistic solution of specific problems as they appear, the improvement of techniques for controlling the world and society. Man's future depends primarily on what he does, not on what he feels or on his speculations. New problems constantly arise and always will arise. Improvements must always be made if man is to progress. We can't just follow the past or dream of what the future might be. We have to work resolutely and continually if control is to be gained over the forces which threaten us. Man should rely on technical advances made possible by scientific knowledge. He should find his goal in the solution of his problems. The good is the enemy of the better.

WAY 7. This philosophy says that we should at various times and in various ways accept something from all other paths of life, but give no one our exclusive allegiance. At one moment one way may be more appropriate; at another moment another is the most appropriate. Life should contain enjoyment and action and contemplation in about equal amounts. When any one way is carried to extremes, we lose something important for our life. So we must cultivate flexibility; admit diversity in ourselves; accept the tension which this diversity produces; find a place for detachment in the midst of enjoyment and activity. The goal of life is found in the dynamic integration of enjoyment, action, and contemplation, and in the dynamic interaction of the various paths of life. One should use all of them in building a life, and not one alone.

WAY 8: Enjoyment should be the keynote of life. Not the hectic search for intense and exciting pleasures, but the enjoyment of the simple and easily obtainable pleasures; the pleasures of just existing, of savoring food, of comfortable surroundings, of talking with friends, of rest and relaxation. A home that is warm and comfortable, chairs and a bed that are soft, a kitchen well stocked with food, a door open to friends--this is the place to live. Body at ease, relaxed, calm in its movements, not hurried, breath slow and easy, a willingness to nod and to rest, gratitude to the world that feeds the body--so should it be. Driving ambition and the fanaticism of ascetic ideals are the signs of discontented people who have lost the capacity to float in the stream of simple, carefree, wholesome enjoyment.

WAY 9: Receptivity should be the keynote of life. The good things of life come of their own accord, and come unsought. They cannot be found by resolute action. They cannot be found in the indulgence of the sensuous desires of the body. They cannot be gathered by participation in the turmoil of social life. They cannot be given to others by attempts to be helpful. They cannot be garnered by hard thinking. Rather do they come unsought when the bars of the self are down. When the self has ceased to make demands and waits in quiet receptivity, it becomes open to the powers which nourish it and work through it; sustained by these powers, it knows joy and peace. Sitting alone under the trees and the sky, open to nature's voices, calm and receptive, then can the wisdom from without enter within.

WAY 10: Self-control should be the keynote of life. Not the easy self-control which retreats from the world, but the vigilant, stern, manly control of a self which lives in the world, and knows the strength of the world and the limits of human power. The good life is rationally directed and firmly pursues high ideals. It is not bent by the seductive voices of comfort and desire. It does not expect social utopias. It is distrustful of final victories. Too much should not be expected. Yet one can with vigilance hold firm the reins of self, control unruly impulses, understand one's place in the world, guide one's actions by reason, maintain self-reliant independence. And in this way, though he finally perish, man can keep his human dignity and respect, and die with cosmic good manners.

WAY 11: The contemplative life is the good life. The external world is no fit habitat for man. It is too big, too cold, too pressing. It is the life turned inward that is rewarding. The rich internal world of ideals, of sensitive feelings, of reverie, of self-knowledge is man's true home. By the cultivation of the self within, man becomes human. Only then does there arise deep sympathy with all that lives, an understanding of the suffering inherent in life, a realization of the futility of aggressive action, the attainment of contemplative joy. Conceit then falls away and austerity is dissolved. In giving up the world, one finds the larger and finer sea of the inner self.

WAY 12: The use of the body's energy is the secret of a rewarding life. The hands need material to make into something; lumber and stone for building, food to harvest, clay to mold. The muscles are alive to joy only in action: in climbing, running, skiing and the like. Life finds its zest in overcoming, dominating, conquering some obstacle. It is the active deed which is satisfying; the deed that meets the challenge of the present, the daring and the adventuresome deed. Not in cautious foresight, not in relaxed ease does life attain completion. Outward energetic action, the excitement of power in the tangible present--this is the way to live.

WAY 13: A person should let himself be used. Used by other persons in their growth, used by the great objective purposes in the universe which silently and irresistibly achieve their goal. For persons' and the world's purposes are basically dependable and can be trusted. One should be humble, constant, faithful, uninsistent. Grateful for affection and protection, but undemanding. Close to persons and to nature, and willing to be second. Nourishing the good by devotion. One should be a serene, confident, quiet vessel and instrument of the great dependable powers which move to fulfill themselves.

"Time Pie"[1]

V. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF WAYS IN WHICH RELIGIOUS AND PHILOSOPHICAL VALUES MAY FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

A. Objective: Identify and discuss the interaction between various value systems and life/career expectations for women and men.

2. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goals and objectives of strategy.

b. Distribute "Time Pie" worksheet. Ask participants to complete it individually.

c. Break into small groups for discussion of the questions at the bottom of the worksheet.

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 50 minutes

Resources needed:

Handout: "Time Pie" (Gray, n.d.)
Reference: Goodman (1978)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants divide pie and discuss the implications.

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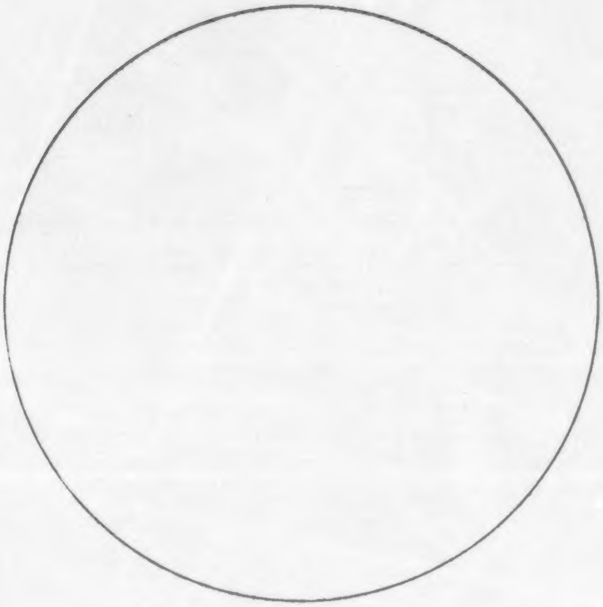
[1] Adapted from exercise by Bonnie Gray, Counselor, University of Minnesota, Extention Division

TIME PIE

Directions

Assuming that this circle represents your total waking hours in a typical week, divide the time pie according to how you spend your time: a) working within the home; b) working outside the home; c) alone; d) with friends; e) leisure activities; etc.



Questions to ponder with respect to each category:

How much time do I spend?
What do I typically do with the time?
What personal needs and wants am I trying to fulfill in my use of time?
How well are these needs and wants being met?
What changes, if any, do I want to make in this time pie - reallocating the quality or quantity of my time?
Are there differences in the way men and women in our group spend their time? Different races, economic classes, and ethnic groups?

"Jesus Was a Feminist"

V. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF WAYS IN WHICH RELIGIOUS AND PHILOSOPHICAL VALUES MAY FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

B. Objective: Identify ways in which religious doctrine, language, and leadership roles influence the sex-role socialization and career development of women and men.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

You may prefer to use Swidler's "Jesus the Liberator" (1976) as the reading assignment and discussion stimulus instead of Swidler's 1971 article.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goals and objectives of the strategy.

b. Pass out copies of "Jesus Was a Feminist" to participants to read.

c. Form small groups, and ask participants to discuss the article and arrive at a consensus as to whether they agree with the title.

Suggested discussion questions:

1) Do you agree with the title? Are there any examples from Christ's life in which woman is placed in a subservient role?
2) What influences, if any, have your religious teachings about male and female roles had on your own career development?
3) Since this is from a Christian viewpoint, what are the views of women's and men's roles as presented by other faiths?
4) Why do some traditional religious groups fear the changing roles of women and men?

d. Summarize in large group.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: A copy of the Bible for each group would also be appropriate in some settings
Handout: "Jesus Was a Feminist" (Swidler, 1971)
References: Conrad-Wahlberg (1975)
Swidler (1976)

Outcome Criteria:

A representative from each group will present group's conclusion to the large group with arguments for or against Swidler's ideas. Group members will present at least two examples of current contributions of religion to sex-role socialization.

V.B.1.

Exerpts from: Jesus Was A Feminist[1]

Thesis: Jesus was a feminist.

Definition of terms: By Jesus is meant the historical person who lived in Palestine two thousand years ago, whom Christians traditionally acknowledge as Lord and Savior, and whom they should imitate as much as possible. By a feminist is meant a person who is in favor of, and who promotes, the equality of women with men, a person who advocates and practices treating women primarily as human persons (as men are so treated) and willingly contravenes social customs in so acting.

To prove the thesis it must be demonstrated that, so far as we can tell, Jesus neither said nor did anything which would indicate that he advocated treating women as intrinsically inferior to men, but that on the contrary he said and did things which indicated that he thought of women as the equals of men, and that in the process he willingly violated pertinent social mores.

The negative portion of the argument can be documented quite simply by reading through the four Gospels. Nowhere does Jesus treat women as "inferior beings." In fact, Jesus clearly felt especially sent to the typical classes of "inferior beings," such as the poor, the lame, the sinner--and women--to call them all to the freedom and equality of the Kingdom of God. But there are two factors which raise this negative result exponentially in its significance: the status of women in Palestine at the time of Jesus, and the nature of the Gospels.

The Status of Women in Palestine

The status of women in Palestine during the time of Jesus was very decidedly that of inferiors. Despite the fact that there were several heroines, recorded in the Scriptures, according to most rabbinic customs of Jesus' time--and long after--women were not allowed to study the Scriptures (Torah). One first-century rabbi, Eliezer, put the point sharply: "Rather should the words of the Torah be burned than entrusted to a woman...Whoever teaches his daughter the Torah is like one who teaches her lasciviousness." In the vitally religious area of prayer, women were so little thought of as not to be given obligations of the same seriousness as men.

Rabbinic sayings about women also provide an insight into the attitude toward women: "It is well for those whose children are male, but ill for those whose children are female...At the birth of a boy all are joyful, but at the birth of a girl all are sad...When a boy comes into the world, peace comes into the world; when a girl comes, nothing comes...Even the most virtuous of women is a witch...Our teachers have said: Four qualities are evident in women: They are greedy at their food, eager to gossip, lazy and jealous." The condition of women in Palestinian Judaism was bleak.

The Nature of the Gospels

The fact that the overwhelmingly negative attitude toward women in Palestine did not come through the primitive Christian communal lens by itself underscores the clearly great religious importance Jesus attached to his positive attitude--his feminist attitude--toward women: feminism, that is, personalism extended to women, is a constitutive part of the Gospel, the Good News, of Jesus.

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[1] L. Swindler, Catholic World, January 1971, pp. 177-183.

Swidler notes:

Jesus taught the Gospel, meaning of scripture and religious truths in general to women. He also allowed them to follow in His travels and to minister (Luke 8:1 ff, Mark 15:40 f).

Jesus' first appearance after the resurrection was to women and they were commissioned to bear witness (John 20:11 ff, Matthew 28:9 f, Mark 16:9 ff).

Though women were treated as second-class citizens and sex objects by others, Jesus did not follow that cultural mode (Luke 7:33 ff, John 8:2 ff).

Jesus rejected the blood taboo (Matthew 9:20 ff, Mark 5:22 ff, Luke 8:43 ff); deliberately violated the common code concerning men's relationships to women (John 4:5 ff); rejected the view of wife as chattel in marriage (Mark 10:2 ff, Matthew 19:3 ff); did not restrict women to the role of homemakers (Luke 10:38 ff, Luke 11:27 f).

The notion of the equal dignity of women was also communicated in the parable of the lost coin, for here Jesus projected God in the image of woman (Luke 15:8 ff).

Conclusion

From this evidence it should be clear that Jesus vigorously promoted the dignity and equality of women in the midst of a very male-dominated society: Jesus was a feminist, and a very radical one. Can his followers attempt to be anything less--De Imitatione Christi?

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-M

V.B.2.

"New Language for the Gospel"

V. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF WAYS IN WHICH RELIGIOUS AND PHILOSOPHICAL VALUES MAY FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

B. Objective: Identify ways in which religious doctrine, language, and leadership roles influence the sex-role socialization and career development of women and men.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Leader should provide copies of a liturgy, hymn, creed which is common to the tradition of the participants and which demonstrates particularly sexist language. For example, such hymns as "Rise Up, Oh Men of God," "Sons of God," etc. and confessions such as one of the Inter-Lutheran Commission on Worship forms which begins "We are all men..."

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Leader will read common liturgy, creed, hymn, or sermon title or excerpt, substituting feminine pronouns for masculine.

c. Participants will form small groups. Members will be asked to share their feelings as they listened to the reading.

   1) What effect does the change have on women? On men?
   2) Does the change make men feel excluded?
   3) What might that tell them of the effect use of masculine language has had on women?
   4) Is it possible to develop forms which use non-sexist language?

d. Pass out copies of liturgies, hymns, or creeds common to the tradition of the participants. Ask participants to edit the readings to make them inclusive for men and women.

e. Each group shares its revision with the total group.

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Copies of liturgies, hymns, and creeds
References: Enswiler (1976)
Wentz (1976)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will edit an example into non-sexist form.

"Career Patterns and Religious Institutions"

V. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF WAYS IN WHICH RELIGIOUS AND PHILOSOPHICAL VALUES MAY FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

B. Objective: Identify ways in which religious doctrine, language, and leadership roles influence the sex-role socialization and career development of women and men.

3. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants reflect on their years in religious institutions they attended, and list ten persons who were of importance to them.

c. Ask participants to count how many males and how many females appear on their lists. How many Asian-Americans, Blacks, Chicanas/Chicanos, and Native Americans?

d. Ask participants to think about the roles played by males and females respectively, and to identify:

1) What vocations or avocations did they see as possible for themselves as adult males and females? How did this differ by race or economic class?
2) What careers might they have considered if the roles had been reversed?
3) Are new and different models available to children today?
4) How might that affect their aspirations?

e. Summarize

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Paper and pens

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will identify two areas where new sex-role models are needed in religious institutions.

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-L

V.B.4.

"Men and Women in Religious Leadership Roles"

V. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE THEIR AWARENESS OF WAYS IN WHICH RELIGIOUS AND PHILOSOPHICAL VALUES MAY FACILITATE OR INHIBIT CAREER CHOICES.

B. Objective: Identify ways in which religious doctrine, language, and leadership roles influence the sex-role socialization and career development of women and men.

4. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Segments from Videotapes No. 1 and No. 5 on Dr. Jeannette Piccard, Episcopal priest, might provide good supplementary stimulus material here.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Ask participants to form small groups and prepare a job description for a pastor, priest, rabbi, or other religious institution leader.

c. When this task is completed, ask groups to list personal qualities one would look for in filling the job.

d. Identify which qualities or traits would be labeled more typically masculine or feminine. If caring, nurturing, supportive behaviors are societally labeled "feminine," why have women been excluded from this vocation?

e. Ask participants to list arguments for and against women clergy. When lists are complete, ask participants to analyze the arguments and then to note how many of the same reasons might apply to male clergy.

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Materials: Paper and pencils
Videotapes Nos. 1 and 5 (see I.B.1. and Iv.A.5.)
References: Hewitt and Hiatt (1973, Ermarth (1970)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list at least two ways in which both "masculine and feminine qualities" are desirable in clerical leadership roles.

Goal VI

PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

Objectives and Learning Strategies

A. Assess and analyze personal styles and modes of change.

   1. Why Change? (Videotape)
   2. Your Decision-Making Style
   3. Group Roles
   4. Looking at Change

B. Identify possible points of intervention in home institutions.

   1. It's What You Know ...
   2. It's Who You Know ...
   3. Legal Considerations

C. Examine institutional factors which may affect possibilities for change.

   1. Sources of Power
   2. Power Structure
   3. Creating Support for Change

D. Identify various strategies for making change in their home institutions.

   1. Force-Field Analysis
   2. Reducing Resistance
   3. Assertiveness
   4. Situational Assertiveness

E. Become aware of the range of change strategies appropriate for home institutions.

   1. Range of Change Strategies
   2. Commitment to Change

F. Apply a systems model of content and process in developing strategies for change in home institutions.

  1. How To Be a Process Helper
  2. Change Process: Small Is Beautiful
  3. Creating an Implementation Plan

"Why Change?" (Videotape)

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

A. Objective: Assess and analyze personal styles and modes of change.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Leader should read the viewers' guide and review Videotape No. 9, "Why Change?" prior to using this strategy. It presents both female (Sunny Hansen) and male (Warren Farrell) perspectives on the changing roles of women and men. Essentially it provides a rationale and arguments for helping people deal with the reality of change. Workshop leaders should be sensitive to the level of awareness of the audience and readiness to deal with some of the issues presented.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of strategy.

b. Introduce the tape as a tool to help people think about the changing roles of women and men in society and where they are in their attitudes about sex roles.

c. Read to the audience the segment from the viewers' guide on BORN FREE concepts and definitions.

d. Show the 30-minute color videotape "Why Change?"

e. Discuss in small groups of five to seven. Suggested discussion questions might include:

1) What are some of the "important answers" women have found to the question "Why Change?" What limits have past roles put on their development?

2) What are some reasons for men to change? What is the "payoff"?

3) What are some of the disadvantages for both women and men in these changes?

4) What does Warren Farrell see as the self-fulfilling trap as roles begin to change?

5) Identify some of the major reasons given in the tape as to why people fear change. Do you agree or disagree?

6) Given all the reasons that changes are needed, what are the most compelling reasons?

7) Regarding the various suggestions made in the tape, what specific things can teachers, counselors, administrators, parents, and other concerned persons do to shape change in more positive ways for human development?

8) What is the significance of Warren Farrell's comments on listening and self-listening?

9) Is there an external ideal which we seek in changing roles of women and men? What will be the long-range outcomes of these changes?

10) In what ways have you changed your own ideas about roles of women and men?

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 5-minute introduction
30 minutes for tape
25 minutes for discussion

Resources: Videotape No. 9: "Why Change?"
Video Viewers' Guide No. 9: Why Change?

Outcome Criterion:

After viewing and discussing the tape, each viewer will identify three of the most cogent reasons that women and men need to change their attitudes about career sex roles.

E SR-L
CD-L TL-L

VI.A.2.

"Your Decision-Making Style"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS

A. Objective: Assess and analyze personal styles and modes of change.

2. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Have participants individually fill out handout.

c. In small groups discuss:

1) Do you see any patterns in the decisions you chose to list?
2) Are there any patterns in how you go about deciding?
3) Is your pattern of deciding different for different situations?
4) What implications does your pattern have for being a change agent?

d. Summarize in large group.

Minimum Time Required: 40 minutes

Resources Needed:

Handout: Copies for all participants of "Previous Decisions: How Did You Deal with Them?"

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will write a paragraph analyzing their pattern of decision making and its implications for being a change agent.

PREVIOUS DECISIONS: HOW DID YOU DEAL WITH THEM? *

	It felt right.	The thoughts, attitudes, and feelings of others had great impact on what I decided.	Never thought about it before deciding. Took the first alternative.	Took the safest choice.	Allowed the decision to become so intolerable that I was forced into action.	Did what I wanted most without thinking of consequences.	Attached weights to what was the most desirable and most probable and decided.
PLEASE LIST BELOW:							
1. Two decisions you made in the last year.							
a.							
b.							
2. Two decisions you made in the past five years.							
a.							
b.							
3. Three critical decisions you have made at any time in your life.							
a.							
b.							
c.							

Do you see any patterns in the decisions you chose to list? Are there any patterns in how you go about deciding? Is that different for critical decisions?

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"Group Roles"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

A. Objective: Assess and analyze personal styles and modes of change.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity is composed of two parts.

Instructions:

Part I: Inhibitor Roles:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. The leader must first read a section of Virginia Satir's book Peoplemaking, "Patterns of Communication."

c. The leader should then prepare summaries and descriptions of the five roles people can assume in groups: placater, blamer, computer, distracter, and leveller.

d. The leader should present these concepts to the group in the following manner:

1) Choose volunteers from the audience and have them assume the appropriate body posture (in the chapter) before verbally describing the role to the group. This action makes the strategy fun and more palatable.

2) Describe only the four inhibitive roles for the group (placater, blamer, computer, and distracter). Be as animated and excited as possible about the exercise.

a) Form the members into groups (four members minimum, eight maximum).
b) Hand out "Dilemma I" to each member.
c) Have each participant silently choose one of the four inhibitive roles to play in group decision making.
d) Instruct each group that they must reach a consensus on the solution to Dilemma I while playing their role.
e) Role play (15 minutes).
f) Have each member stop role playing and assume their appropriate body posture for their role.

(Option: Continue role playing, with members silently changing roles for an added perspective.)

e. Process the first group decision-making attempt with the following questions:

   1) How did you feel playing that role? How did others in the group react to you? Did this change over time? Why did you choose that role?
   2) How did you feel toward others in the group?
   3) Who was most significant in reaching your group decision?
   4) How did you feel the role interfered with your normal means of communication?
   5) If roles were switched, why (or why not) did you choose another role?

f. Next, present the role of the leveller, stressing the facilitative aspects of communicating in that manner.

Part II: Facilitator Roles:

a. With members in the same groups as previously, hand out "Dilemma II" and have them reach a group decision by consensus using the leveller role.

b. Process the decision making with the following questions:

   1) What were the major differences with the role(s) you assumed in Dilemma I?
   2) Was this comparable to your normal means of communication within groups? How was it similar/different? Was it comfortable/uncomfortable?
   3) In what ways does levelling inhibit or facilitate communication?
   4) Do you use different types of communication for different situations? Specify.

c. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/2 - 2 hours

Resources Needed:

Handouts: "Dilemmas," taken from Walter Smith, University of Kansas
Attached Article: "Patterns of Communication" (Satir, 1972)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list the inhibitive/facilitating effects of assuming the group roles above in decision making.

DILEMMAS[*]

I.

I. Anne and Allan Johnson were married four years ago just before their senior year of college. Since graduation Anne has taught at Jonesboro Elementary School and Allan has worked as an engineer at Ace Metals. Anne is excited because she has been asked to advance next year to be team leader for the three first grades at Jonesboro Elementary; but Allan has been told that for the second time he's in line to be transferred to another division of Ace Metals in another town. Allan can choose to stay at his present location or move, but he knows that his career with Ace Metals would be in jeopardy if he would turn down two transfers in a row. They know that teaching jobs are hard to get in the other town. There are no children at home or on the way.

Put yourself in their situation.

II.

II. Jane and John Whitehead and their twin preschoolers, Bill and Sally, live in Middleville. John studied business at State U. and has worked at Acme, Inc., for six years since graduation. He's making a good living for his family, his job is respectable, and he knows that he will probably continue to be successful at the job, if he chooses. However, despite all that, he is uneasy and uncertain about his job. There's nothing he can put his finger on except that he's not quite as satisfied as he had hoped he would be. He'd like to quit, take some time to think over his life, and go back to school (in some area yet to be determined). His quitting work will mean that Jane will have to get a job, which she hasn't had to do since before Bill and Sally were born, and they probably will have to lower somewhat their standard of living (at least for a while). If John goes back to school, they'll have to find day care for Bill and Sally.

Put yourself in Jane's and John's situation.

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[*] Smith, Walter. University of Kansas.

*SUMMARY OF VIRGINIA SATIR'S FOUR LEVELS OF RESPONSE, PLUS ONE MORE**

In her book, Peoplemaking, Virginia Satir describes four universal ways in which people react to stress if and when their egos are involved, or when their self-worth is somehow threatened, plus a fifth style which she sees as the ideal response style. The four patterns of communication that people use when self-esteem is involved and the threat to self-esteem is denied are: "placating, blaming, computing, and distracting" (Satir, 1972, p. 59).

Satir believes that the threat to self-esteem occurs only when the individual has a poorly developed sense of self-worth and so constantly uses other people's opinions as a measure of self-worth. When people depend upon others for definition of their self-worth, they are likely to say and do things which are untrue or not sincere, in an effort to gain approval.

When people avoid the truth in order to be accepted by and acceptable to others, they are sending double messages, with their words saying what is expected and the body and sounds sending negative messages. Those conflicting messages are picked up by the receiving person, causing a conflict in the interpretation and response. This double message creates conflict and disharmony between people.

When confronted with a double message, the four choices of response are: 1) placate, so the other person won't get angry; 2) blame, so none of the problem is yours; 3) compute abstractly, dealing objectively with the message to prove its unimportance and to establish your own self-worth; and 4) distract or ignore the message, for if you pretend it isn't there maybe it will disappear.

No matter what words we use, our bodies show our self-evaluation of our own worth. Satir's description of body stances that accompany the four types of response was devised to make people aware of the image others have of them when they are in one of the four modes. To role play the responses, the following descriptions should be helpful.

The placater, always agreeing, talks in an ingratiating manner, apologizing and trying to please. Imagine yourself kneeling, whining, pleading, and looking upward with one hand reaching up to a superior other person, saying "yes" to everything regardless of your own thoughts and feelings.

The blamer disagrees and accuses, acting like a superior dictator. Imagine yourself as a tyrannical boss with high blood pressure, standing over an inferior person with a finger pointed accusingly, as you criticize and call names, without ever giving a chance for an answer or a defense.

The computer speaks with impersonal calmness like a patient teacher explaining a fact to a small child. Imagine yourself with head raised haughtily, talking in the most complex words possible, with little motion and no emotion, choosing the correct words carefully and never risking a mistake.

The distractor says anything that makes no sense at all, being sure to never answer a question or make a point. Imagine yourself dizzy, out of tune with the words you and others are saying, speaking in a singsong voice with no meaning, and moving in no direction, spinning erratically. Ignore questions, wave your hands in all directions, brush off lint, examine your nails, and talk on your own topic which is totally unrelated to the present need, with your legs, arms, and hands moving haphazardly.

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*Summarized from Satir, Virginia, Peoplemaking, Palo Alto, California: Science and Behavior Books, 1972, by Dolores Dege.

The use of any of these responses increases the user's low self-worth. A fifth response is Satir's answer to the four crippling responses. It is called "leveling" (Satir, 1972, p. 72). In this response, all parts of the body are in harmony with the words and voice. Communication is honest, and there is no loss of self-esteem. By using the leveling response, ruptures can be healed, impasses broken, and bridges between people built.

The leveling response may be an apology, a criticism, an evaluation, or an intellectual explanation. But whatever it is, it is real and the body and voice in consistency with the words will show that it is real. The messages are not mixed. People who are leveling are open, trustworthy, and make you feel good in their presence.

Satir says that people are kept from leveling responses by seven fears or self-threats. Answers to the threats, which will permit growth, are:

FEARS	ANSWERS
1. Of making a mistake.	1. Mistakes are unavoidable when new action is undertaken.
2. Of someone not liking it.	2. Certainly, someone won't like it, because we don't all like the same things.
3. Of criticism.	3. You will be criticized, because you are not perfect.
4. Of imposing.	4. It is impossible to be in the presence of or speak to another person without imposing in some fashion.
5. Of being thought no good.	5. So what? Know the difference between your own shortcomings and the other person's blame.
6. Of being less than perfect.	6. If you look for perfection you will find imperfection.
7. Of being left.	7. Maybe you'd be better off without the person. You'll survive it.

If all the fears came true, you would still survive. And you are not alone in having the fears. Many people have them, and they all use them to threaten themselves. By using leveling responses, it is possible to overcome the fears and respond with truth, agreeing when we want to, disagreeing when we want to, and being honest in our relationships. Then we can live freely and wholly, in touch with our real selves and in touch with others.

E SR-L
CD-L TL-M

VI.A.4.

"Looking at Change"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

A. Objective: Assess and analyze personal styles and modes of change.

4. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy provides analysis of the change process on an institutional and individual basis. Participants may desire background information on change agentry and the change process prior to completing this strategy (see references listed below). The attached "Personal Change Categories" may be adapted and/or changed according to the group's needs.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have each participant fill out the "Looking at Change" worksheet using a current/past professional/personal change.

c. Divide the group into small groups of three to share their change analyses. Indicate that each person has a maximum of ten minutes to relate the change analysis and receive comments and/or suggestions from the other group members.

d. After thirty minutes have the small groups reassemble and discuss the change process. Some discussion questions might include:

1) What changes were chosen for analysis?
2) What differences and/or similarities did your group find regarding these changes?
3) Were there forces internal to the system affecting the change? If so, how?
4) Were there forces external to the system affecting the change (i.e., religious or political groups in the community; state or federal agencies; mass media)? If so, how?
5) What other variables were impinging on the change process?
6) How can this knowledge be helpful in your school?

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 20 minutes for completing "Looking at Change"
30 minutes for small-group discussion
10 minutes for large-group discussion

Resources Needed:

Materials: Chalkboard and chalk, or newsprint and marker
Handout: "Looking at Change"
References: Havelock (1973), Howe (1975), Kanter (1975), Mann (1976)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will describe in a paragraph the change they analyzed and list two points about the change process they became more aware of as a result of the analysis.

LOOKING AT CHANGE

1. What substantial changes have occurred in your school within the last year?

2. Select one major change with which you were directly involved and describe it in a paragraph.

3. Answer the following questions about the change you described in question 2.

   a. How did the concern/problem first come to the attention of school officials? To your attention?

   b. What subgroups were affected by the outcome of the change? In what specific ways were they affected? How were you affected?

   c. List briefly:

The forces for the change:	The forces against the change:
1)	1)
2)	2)
3)	3)
4)	4)
5)	5)

   d. Describe how information about the change was handled before, during, and after the decision to change was made.

   e. Who made the decision to change?

   f. How was the change implemented?

g. What problems were encountered in trying to implement the change? Were they overcome and if so, how?

4. Describe in a paragraph how you view the change at this point in time.

5. Could you have behaved differently? If so, how?

Personal Change Categories*

Traditional: These techniques are what most people consider traditional and conventional ways to bring about support for a change effort.

Influencing Superior: These techniques are concerned with directly attempting to influence your boss so she/he can then "go to bat" for you.

Manipulate System: These techniques are attempts to manipulate the system of the organization to bring about change.

Aggressive: These techniques are concerned with aggressive, possibly militant techniques to bring about change.

External Influences: These techniques have to do with influence attempts that use resources and persons external to the organization to bring about change.

Wait and See: These techniques show that you are dependent upon waiting for the organization to change itself.

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*These are not the only categories possible, but are suggestions to be used during analysis.

E SR-L
CD-L TL-M

VI.B.1.

"It's What You Know..."

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

V. Objective: Identify possible points of intervention in home institutions.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This exercise could be done in small groups by institution, or by department or division, or by a mix of institutions. Perhaps it could be left to the whole group to decide. This exercise can also be done with VI.B.2., "It's Who You Know...".

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants identify the structures of academic governance that hold the key to changes in institutional policy regarding such issues as curriculum, student advising, career planning and placement, etc.

c. Discuss which ones are most amenable to change, which ones are least amenable. Do they vary by institution and within institutions? Which change modes might be most effective (see VI.A.4., "Looking at Change")?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 35 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Change mode from VI.A.4., "Looking at Change"

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will identify five points of intervention in their own institutions and analyze which ones are most amenable and least amenable to change.

"It's Who You Know..."

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

B. Objective: Identify possible points of intervention in home institutions.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy is designed to help participants identify formal and informal contacts in their institution that can serve as points of intervention in the change process. Participants should be placed in heterogeneous groups. This strategy can be done with VI.A.4., "Looking at Change," and VI.B.1., "It's What You Know..."

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants pick one change-related goal they hope to achieve.

c. Have each participant complete the "Contact Map" related to the goal.

d. Have participants break into small groups and discuss their "Contact Map." Possible discussion questions may include:

   1) In thinking about your goal, which formal/informal contact would be most helpful/useful? How do you plan to enlist their support?
   2) How can those contacts unfavorable to your goal inhibit your progress? How do you plan to deal with these contacts?
   3) What can you do to clarify the "maybe's" and "don't knows"? Would that be helpful?

e. Have small groups report back to the large group.

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Contact Map"
References: Havelock (1973), Mann (1976)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will complete the "Contact Map" indicating informal/formal contacts both inside and outside their institutions. Participants will list two possible points of intervention in their home institution.

*CONTACT MAP**

Instructions for completing the CONTACT MAP:

1) Draw solid lines connecting areas within the school or vocational technical institute where you have formal (official) relationships. Also draw solid lines to persons, groups, and organizations outside the school or vocational-technical institute (e.g., state university, state department of education, vocational center).

2) Draw broken lines for informal relationships within and outside your institution.

3) The following symbols may be helpful:

+ = favorable to goal
- = unfavorable to goal
+? = maybe favorable
-? = maybe unfavorable
? = don't know

Change-related goal I would like to achieve: ______________________________

____

____

Contacts Inside		Contacts Outside	
Formal	Informal	Formal	Informal

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*Adapted from: Handout by Pat Howland

P/E SR-M
CD-M TL-L

VI.B.3.

"Legal Considerations"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

B. Objective: Examine institutional factors which may affect possibilities for change.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Participants need to understand recent and pending federal and state legislation regarding sex discrimination in education and the career development of women and men. This objective could best be achieved by inviting an expert in sex discrimination and the law to make a presentation to the group. Sources for "experts" might be the local chapters of Women's Equity Action League (WEAL), American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU), school women's rights groups, State Human Rights Dept., school affirmative action officers, National Organization for Women (NOW), NEA and AFT women's divisions, American Association of University Women (AAUW), League of Women voters, etc.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy and introduce speaker.

b. Expert would make presentation covering:

    1) present laws pertaining to sex discrimination in education
    2) their provisions (exclusions, enforcement powers, etc.)
    3) implications for schools
    4) pending legislation and its possible implications.

c. Question and answer session.

d. Following the question and answer session, have participants break into small groups and discuss implications for their own institutions. Emphasize humane reasons for compliance as well as legal reasons.

e. Report back to large group.

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/2 hours

Resources Needed:

Summaries or copies of recent laws and of Congressional hearings on them.
References: Bender (March 1976)
Verheyden-Hilliard (1976)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will identify and explain in their journals laws relating to sex discrimination in education, 1) applying them to their own institutions or situations, and 2) citing advantages for both men and women.

"Sources of Power"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

C. Objective: Examine institutional factors which may affect possibilities for change.

1. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Individually, list the words which come to mind when you hear the word "power." Examples of power sources are: ability to influence one's role or position, physical strength, social power, verbal and non-verbal behaviors, and being perceived as an expert.

b. In large group, make one listing from the individual lists.

c. In small groups, identify the types and sources of the powers from the list. Suggested questions for discussion are:

1) What power sources do you have? Do you make use of them?

2) Are there sex and race differences in certain types of power?

3) In the groups/organizations in which you currently participate, who has power? (Keep in mind the various types of power.)

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 40-50 minutes

Resources Needed:

References: Korda (1975), Polk (1974), Howe (1975), Kanter (1975).

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list three sources of power they have and illustrate how they used one or more of them to try to make a change in their institution (or some other organization).

"Power Structure"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

C. Objective: Examine institutional factors which may affect possibilities for change.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

It is often difficult for some participants--particularly parents--to understand the power structure in their school system because of a lack of experience. The attached article will help them become aware of a "typical" educational system.

Knowledge of the educational system is a prerequisite for anyone wishing to initiate change in that system. Be sure to attend to individual differences in school systems that deviate from the framework presented.

Be sure to emphasize where and how the power structure can be affected to initiate change. This is a good introductory exercise for work in the change process.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Have participants read "The Power Structure" (or present the content of the article to the group).

c. In small groups, by school or school district, discuss (selecting someone to record):

   1) In what ways is your power structure similar?
   2) In what ways is your power structure different?
   3) What other factors might you take into account regarding the power structure?
   4) In what ways can the power structure be affected?

   Note: Question number 4 is designed to examine sources of power and influence in the community that are factors in changing the school, e.g., powerful persons, powerful groups, laws and regulations. Also look at state and national factors.

d. Report to large group.

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 40 minutes

Resources Needed:

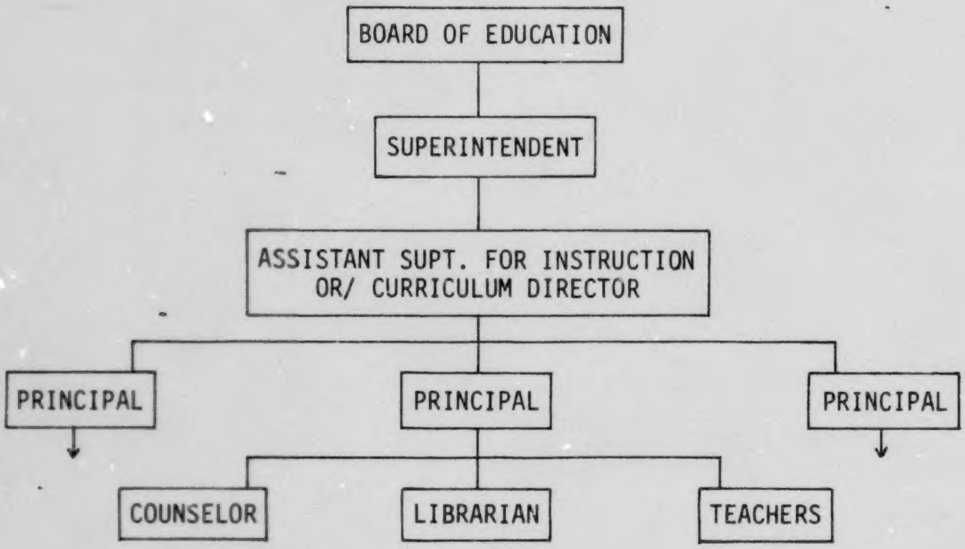
Materials: Newsprint, magic markers
Handout: "The Power Structure" (Rothchild, 1973)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list two strategies they would consider in making changes in their institutions.

THE POWER STRUCTURE[1]

Although school districts vary considerably in size and are governed under the theory of local control, they are remarkably similar in structure. An organization chart for most school systems looks like this:


BOARD OF EDUCATION
SUPERINTENDENT
ASSISTANT SUPT. FOR INSTRUCTION OR/ CURRICULUM DIRECTOR
PRINCIPAL
PRINCIPAL
PRINCIPAL
COUNSELOR
LIBRARIAN
TEACHERS

The only variation you are likely to find is in positions such as assistant superintendents, coordinators, or consultants. Sometimes these are line jobs (as shown) and sometimes their position in the hierarchy is unclear. The larger the school district, the more likely you are to find these miscellaneous personnel. They go by such names as Assistant Superintendent, Director of Curriculum, Director of Secondary Education, or Coordinator of Curriculum.

The problem, therefore, with dealing with a large district is that you are more likely to get a bureaucratic runaround than in a small district where job responsibilities are clearly defined. On the other hand, the advantage of a large district is that you are more likely to find allies on the "inside."

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[1] From: Sexism in schools: A handbook for action. 1973, pp. 3-20. Permission to reprint granted by Nina Rothchild, author.

It is usually more effective to work together with people rather than against them. Do not place yourself in an adversary relationship with the schools or you may actually hinder what you are trying to accomplish. As you attempt to learn about the structure of your district, try to identify those within the system who are already sensitive to sex bias or those who can be won over to your view with a cooperative approach.

HOMEWORK: Get a copy of your district or school handbook (if available) and find out the nature of your district's organization and the names of the persons you will be dealing with. If a handbook is not available, ask at your district office for a list of the professional personnel. Your district office may be called either district office, superintendent's office, or central administration, and is listed in the phone book either under its name or under "I" for Independent School District. If you find you have trouble getting the things you need, speak to the Superintendent's secretary. She usually knows everything.

(NOTE: Some local chapters of the League of Women Voters have made studies of their schools and could be a source of structural information. Call your local League to see if they have such a study available.)

BOARD OF EDUCATION

The school board consists of six or seven persons who are elected on a staggered basis each May for three-year terms. In Minnesota most school board members are male, but many boards contain at least one woman and occasionally you will find two women on the board. The board's job is to set overall policy for the school, but in reality they have little control over what goes on in the classroom. They are essentially unpaid, very part-time persons who hire "professionals" to oversee the educational program. They think of the administration as "our team" -- you will find sports terminology rampant in the public schools -- and will never publicly undermine the superintendent and administration. Boards ask for, and usually follow, recommendations from the administration. The real decision making, therefore, is done by those who are full-time, on-the-job, in-the-schools.

In spite of this, however, it is usually worthwhile and necessary to communicate with board members for the following reasons: (1) The board has power over those who do make decisions. If you're willing to go to the top of the hierarchy, the administration knows you are serious; (2) The board is made up of elected officials, and must therefore appear to pay attention to their constituents. All professional personnel in the schools have tenure, and are less likely to be responsive to the public; (3) All policy and budget changes must be approved by the board, so sooner or later the board will vote on issues which concern you; (4) You can often find out something you want to know more quickly and easily by asking a board member to find out for you. A board member has more "clout" with school personnel than does a private citizen.

In dealing with the board, remember that a board member has no real authority or power as an individual. A majority vote of the board is necessary for any action to be taken. The most effective way to influence the board, therefore, is to send any communications in writing to all members of the board. In addition, if the issue is a publicly popular one, present it at a public meeting. Don't count on just one member of the board "carrying the ball" for you.

HOMEWORK 1: Know the names, addresses, phone numbers, and term of office of each board member. Know the meeting time and place for board meetings. Attend several board meetings to get a feeling for what your board is like. If you sense that one of the board might be sympathetic to your point of view, call her/him and ask if she/he is aware or concerned about sex bias in the schools. Having an ally on the board is well worth the trouble of trying to find one.

HOMEWORK 2: Get involved in school board elections. Raise your questions of candidates, support candidates who support your view, or field your own candidate.

SUPERINTENDENT

The superintendent is the top man[1] in the school system and wields an enormous amount of power. He is held responsible for the entire school program, personnel, budget, finances, public relations, etc. So, while the board may set general policy, in fact most major decisions are made by the superintendent after consulting with his administrative team. This is particularly true when money is involved.

Beyond the decision-making power, however, is the power he holds over his staff by virtue of being the "boss." It is therefore important that you know something about your superintendent and whether to expect support or resistance from him. If a superintendent is really serious about something, chances are it will get done, although this is less true in a large district where layers of bureaucracy filter out his influence before it reaches the classroom.

The superintendent is a busy man with pressures from all sides: teachers, taxpayers, administrators, students, parents, and board members. His skills must be those of a mediator and general administrator and it is therefore unlikely for him to have the time to make a strong stand on sex discrimination his overriding priority. The most you can expect is a willingness to use his position to influence the board and staff. But, considering the power he holds, it is well worth trying to get him on your side.

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[1] Not a generic term. In Minnesota, all superintendents are male.

Because of his need to be neutral on controversial issues, it is best to approach him privately at first. If you find him ignoring you, you will then have to confront both him and the board at a public meeting. Superintendents are ex-officio members of the board and are always present at board meetings.

Most board meetings have an item on the agenda called "communications" or "other business," a time when the public may speak on issues not on the regular agenda. Therefore, if your superintendent ignores you in private, or if your district is so large that he doesn't have time for individual meetings, use the public meeting as a way to get his ear.

> HOMEWORK: Make an appointment with your superintendent to meet with you or, even better, a group of you. Send him some general consciousness-raising materials first. Take along the State Department of Education's policy on "Eliminating Sex Bias in the Public Schools." Ask him who has received the guidelines within the school and whether or not he has discussed it with them. Ask what your district has done to implement the guidelines and what they intend to do. If your superintendent won't meet with you, or if you get the runaround from him, say the same things to the board at a public meeting. He will be listening.

DIRECTOR

Assistant Superintendents, Curriculum Coordinators, Directors, etc. are the educational "specialists" of the system. It is usually their responsibility to coordinate the curriculum, improve the curriculum, improve the teaching methods, and arrange in-service training for teachers. Their authority varies from system to system, but generally they have to rely on persuasion rather than power. If a coordinator is respected by teachers, he can be very effective in influencing the school program. If he is not, he has power only as a member of the administrative "team."

Since his job is more abstract than others in the schools (he doesn't have to keep 30 kids busy every day or see that the building is orderly), he will probably be willing to sit down with you and tell you something about his own responsibilities and those of others. In this way, you might find out who actually decides on a textbook series, who decides whether shop is co-ed, and so on.

Alternatively, if your director appears too busy to help you (and this often happens since directors fear they are expendable and must therefore appear busy), there is usually a school policy book available in your district office which contains job descriptions for all personnel. Thus, if you are unclear about the responsibilities of your personnel and are unable to get help from the coordinator, ask to see a copy of the school's policy book.

The advantage of having a director on your side is in the numbers. There are just too many teachers in a system for you to reach very many of them. A respected director, therefore, can have influence in many classrooms, particularly in the areas which lead to sex-stereotyping: curriculum material and teacher behavior.

(NOTE: Among directors of various types, the Athletic Director is in a class by himself. Chances are he is also head football coach and will resist you every inch of the way.)

> HOMEWORK: Make an appointment with your director after flooding him with consciousness-raising materials, studies of sex bias, book lists, etc. Curriculum directors work primarily with paper, so the more the better. When you see him, have the State Department guidelines with you. Ask him the same questions you asked the superintendent as well as asking about his own responsibilities in textbook selection, curriculum decisions, teacher in-service, etc.

PRINCIPALS

Principals are, in theory, the educational leaders of their buildings. In reality most are too burdened with housekeeping work to have much impact on education. They spend their time keeping the building orderly, checking schedules and attendance, taking care of personnel problems, and generally doing building manager types of things. There are exceptions to this, however, and you will probably want to find out what your principal is like, again on the basis of numbers. A principal can have a great deal of impact on the general "tone" of his school and on teacher attitudes. He is the boss to most teachers since he is directly above them in the hierarchy; he is usually responsible for teacher evaluation, and he wields power accordingly.

It's not worth your time to go to all the principals in your district. They think in terms of "their" school and "their" parents, and are likely to pay attention only to persons who actually have kids in their school. Your own principal, however, will be very willing to see you because part of his job is to pacify parents.

> HOMEWORK: Make an appointment with your principal, take along whatever materials you consider appropriate, and ask him the same questions you asked the director or curriculum coordinator. Do not use this visit to make a complaint about a specific teacher unless you have already talked to her and received no satisfaction. Your time is best used to encourage the principal to think of positive ways to help all his teachers become more aware of sexist attitudes and practices. Principals tend to be pragmatic, and react more favorably to specific suggestions than to blanket criticism.

TEACHERS

Teachers are, of course, at the heart of the educational process. If all teachers were non-sexists, this booklet would not exist. Unfortunately, however, many teachers (like many others) are not only sexists, but are totally unaware of it. Do not expect female teachers to be more aware or sympathetic than male teachers; most teachers have traditional values and consider it appropriate for boys and girls to learn their traditional sex roles in our society.

On the other hand, you have three plusses when dealing with teachers. Both the MEA and the MFT have taken positions on sex discrimination, and most teachers, if reminded of it, will not overtly go against their professional organization. Secondly, teachers who have recently taken their course in human relations[1] will have had some exposure to the topic of sexism. Thirdly, of all the personnel in the school, your child's teacher will be the most sensitive to a parent's concern.

Converting the teacher is "where it's at." If that cannot be done, nothing real is going to happen; the programs will be form without substance. Don't let your animosities toward some of the teachers you have had to deal with blind you to what some of the interesting, exciting, and dedicated teachers can do and are doing in this area. Teachers in good, creative schools are not mere functionaries; they usually have power over their textbook choice, curriculum revision, content of their particular courses, and the responsibility to make suggestions for professional workshops. A good teacher can even flourish in an inhospitable environment.

If your teacher seems totally unaware in the area of sex bias, a good strategy to use is a comparison of black-white when talking of male-female. For example, if your child's teacher uses the common and apparently harmless practice of saying, "boys over here, girls over there," you can point out that she wouldn't do the same thing with "blacks over here, whites over there."

Use your best judgment about your approach and the materials suitable for teachers since the level of awareness will vary from one to another; but just remember that the more you can document your views, the more effective you will be.

HOMEWORK: If your children are in elementary school, they probably tell you about their life in school. Look through their books for evidences of sex bias. Visit your child's class. Although you may feel threatened by visiting your child's teacher, make an appointment to see her. Bring consciousness-raising materials, and ask if she, too, is concerned about this issue. Be reasonable and helpful, and see if you can gain a convert.

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[1] All teachers, except those with lifetime certificates, are required to take a course in human relations before being certified or re-certified. Sexism is one component of this course.

If your children are in secondary school, they probably have many teachers. Ask your children if any of them have shown an interest in this subject. If so, get in touch with them, and offer your help. See the chapter on teacher awareness for specific suggestions for both elementary and secondary teachers.

COUNSELORS

Counselors are responsible for advising students about their school program and about their post-high school plans. Counselors vary considerably in the way they carry out this function. At one extreme is the counselor who is primarily a record-keeper. He spends his time entering test scores on forms, straightening out schedules, routinely approving programs, and passing out college catalogues. At the other extreme is the counselor who is a true friend and advocate for the kids. . . .

LIBRARIANS

Librarians are responsible for the libraries within their schools and in most cases have the authority to buy the books for their libraries. In a large district, a head librarian may make the final approval of the books, but generally a building librarian has a good deal of autonomy. Because of this independence from the rest of the bureaucratic structure, you are very likely to have more success with less hassle here than in other attempts to change the schools. Again it is a process of raising the awareness of the librarian and convincing her that the sex-stereotyping in children's books is harmful to kids.

In visiting your librarian you have two advantages: one is that parents seldom take any interest in library books except for the negative book-burners, so your librarian will probably welcome the attention from someone who has constructive suggestions about library books. People who respect books have a natural empathy. The second advantage is that you will have concrete proposals which are easy for her to carry out since she has to buy books anyway.

HOMEWORK: Visit your school librarian after calling ahead to find out what time is convenient for her. Take along studies showing sex-stereotyping in children's books and any other materials you think useful to raise her level of awareness. Take along book lists of children's books which have been approved by feminist organizations. Be pleasant and reasonable and positive so you will not be branded a book-burner. Do not ask her to remove books, but emphasize that you want a balance in the library.

Emphasize the cumulative effect of so many books showing girls as passive and boys as active, etc. She will be pleased that you, too, consider children's books important in developing attitudes and values. Leave the materials and lists you brought and say you'll be interested in hearing from her later about the usefulness of the lists.

STUDENTS

Students are supposed to be what education is all about, but in reality they are practically powerless in the schools. It is worth talking to the kids, however, because only from them will you get a truly honest picture of what goes on in the schools. Your children, their friends, and your friends' children are therefore your best source of information about what really happens in your own district.

In talking to the kids you can find out such things as: Do they allow boys more sports activities than girls? Do they play boys against girls in classroom games? Do they punish boys by making them sit with the girls? Do they encourage girls to think about a career beyond motherhood and housekeeping?

Are shop and home-ec open to both boys and girls? Do the boys get to use athletic facilities more than girls? Do the counselors discourage girls with ambition? Do Family Life classes singularly glorify motherhood and the nuclear family? Do the health classes for girls talk about grooming and popularity? Does career education reinforce stereotyped roles? Do the Health movies emphasize masculine and feminine roles and behavior? Can cheerleaders ride on the same bus with the boy athletes?

HOMEWORK: Ask the kids you know some of the questions listed above plus any other questions of particular interest to you. Ask them if "women's lib" has been discussed in any of their classes. Ask them what was said. Offer to come and talk to classes about feminist issues. Publicize your liberation group if you belong to one and encourage high school girls to join. Notify the students in charge of assemblies that speakers and films are available, and offer to help set up an assembly program for them.

"Creating Support for Change"

VI. Goal: PARTICPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

C. Objective: Examine institutional factors which may affect possibilities for change.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Although each individual person can be an effective change agent, such persons, if forced to work alone, are often vulnerable to attack and their work is undercut. We can assume, therefore, that the building of support groups among like-minded persons in a given institution is an essential ingredient for successful change. See "Support-Group Communication Guidelines" (handout, Goal VI.F.3., "Creating an Implementation Plan").

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of strategy.

b. Divide participants into small groups, and brainstorm ways to build a strong and flexible support system. Have each group choose a recorder.

Examples of strategies are:

Develop and maintain a newsletter.
Have bi-monthly support meetings.
Caucus at professional meetings.
Form coalition with other groups.

Hand out the "Career Development Programs: Strategies for Integration" (attached) so that the group may refer to it during their brainstorming.

c. After list is completed, have participants pick three or four ideas and elaborate on how to make those effective strategies for support. (Include discussion of strategies they have used before for this issue or for other change areas. Examine what has worked and what hasn't, as well as possible reasons for successes and failures.)

d. Have small-group recorders share results. Place these on a blackboard or newsprint.

e. Summarize.

Alternative Strategy:

The building of a successful support system involves not only drawing together those of like minds but also re-educating colleagues to non-sexist positions so that they, too, can become part of a support group. The following idea may be suggested by participants. If not, the leader could have participants list and discuss concrete ways for re-educating colleagues--including administrators who occupy key power positions. (They might want to refer back to their "Contact Map" in VI.B.2., "It's Who You Know...," for help in thinking of specific people.)

Examples: Hold forum with national speaker.
Hold "speak-out" (open discussion meeting) with various school and community people involved.
Develop and send free copies of the newsletter periodically.
Hold informal discussions.
Send out parent newsletter, professional report bulletins, etc.
Organize to change the reward system.
Invite semi-interested people to be on your committee.

Minimum Time Required: 1½ hours

Resources Needed:

Handouts: "Support-Group Communication Guidelines" (see VI.F.3., Session I)
"Career Development Programs"

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will identify five strategies for building support, and analyze success or failure ingredients of particular strategies in particular situations.

Possible Strategies for Integrating Career Development/ Career Education into Secondary Education

by S. Hansen

1. Identify developmental tasks to be mastered by students at different stages of secondary school, using some conceptual or theoretical framework.

2. Do a careful documentation of the problem and needs assessment through examining national, state, and local data. Note differences in plans, goals, and choices of boys and girls.

3. Plan for attending to change process by a) identifying support groups (e.g. career education coordinator, guidance staff, homeroom advisors), b) identifying ways to get support at policy and decision-making levels (e.g. school boards, central administration), and c) obtaining administrative commitment (written public support).

4. Coordinate efforts and activities through a central program or structure--e.g., Career Resources Center or Career Learning Center working with teachers, students, parents, and community.

5. Identify all of career guidance/career development activities in all parts of the school (curricular units, career and college days, media centers, work study programs, guidance units, special courses, computer programs, etc.).

6. Identify all of work-study or cooperative education efforts in the school (paid work-study, volunteer programs, BIE days, Experience-Based Career Education, Shadow for a Day, etc.).

7. Identify what the school is doing to promote the career development of its students from admission to homeroom advising to counseling to classroom to placement and follow-up.

8. Identify career information facilities and resources available centrally or in various subject areas, [illegible] counseling office, Career Learning Center, library, media center, departmental libraries. Special areas or materials should deal with sex-role issues and information.

9. Provide training opportunities for faculty in career development concepts and ways of integrating into each discipline, with special emphasis on attracting the other sex into nontraditional fields.

10. Incorporate concerns about sex bias which may limit student choices into all aspects of the curricular and extracurricular school program.

11. Identify all the placement efforts going on in all departments of the school and community (vocational education, college placement, work-study, career education, employment office, CETA, etc.).

12. Involve graduates of the school in a systematic effort to bridge the gap between education and work.

13. Examine for effectiveness special alternative programs such as EBCE, pocket schools, women's programs, especially with regard to career.

14. Identify ways in which sex-role stereotyping in educators' attitudes, behaviors, and practices and in institutional policies limit or expand career options of students.

15. Select an appropriate, validated and sex-fair computerized information system to supplement counselor's work in career guidance.

E SR-M
CD-M TL-M

VI.D.1.

"Force-Field Analysis"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

D. Objective: Identify various strategies for making change in their home institutions.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

In planning the use of the "Force-Field Analysis" the leader should provide sufficient time to complete the inventory during the workshop or have participants complete the inventory prior to the workshop.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.
Use the introductory paragraph from the inventory to explain the objective.

b. Then have participants complete the "Force-Field Analysis Inventory" and share the results in small groups of three or four.

c. Bring the small groups together to discuss their findings.

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/2 to 2 hours

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Force-Field Analysis Inventory" (Ford and Lippitt, 1972)

Outcome Criteria:

After completing the "Force-Field Analysis," participants will list two strategies for making changes in their home institutions.

FORCE-FIELD ANALYSIS INVENTORY[1]

The force-field analysis inventory, adapted from Kurt Lewin's theory of planned change, helps you to make a change effort specific and concrete. Part I asks you to define the problem clearly so that another person will be able to understand it. Part II asks you to specify the forces working for and against change; typically, this section will include your own positive motivations as well as your reservations and resistances. Part III asks you to make a specific contract with yourself to change your behavior.

PART I: PROBLEM SPECIFICATION

Think about a problem that is significant in your "back-home" situations. Respond to each item as fully as necessary so that another person can understand the problem.

1. *I understand the problem specifically to be that . . .*

2. *The following people with whom I must deal are involved in the problem:*

   Their roles in this problem are . . .

   They relate to me in the following manner:

3. *I consider these other factors to be relevant to the problem:*

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[1] From; J. W. Pfeiffer and J. E. Jones (Eds.), A handbook of structured experiences for human relations training, Volume II, Revised, La Jolla, CA.: University Associates, 1974. Used with permission.

4. *I would choose the following aspect of the problem to be changed if it were in my power to do so:* (Choose only one aspect.)

PART II: PROBLEM ANALYSIS

5. *If I consider the present status of the problem as a temporary balance of opposing forces, the following would be on my list of forces driving toward change:* (Fill in the spaces to the right of the letters. Leave spaces to the left blank.)

_____ a. ______________________________

_____ b. ______________________________

_____ c. ______________________________

_____ d. ______________________________

_____ e. ______________________________

_____ f. ______________________________

_____ g. ______________________________

_____ h. ______________________________

6. *The following would be on my list of forces restraining change:*

_____ a. ______________________________

_____ b. ______________________________

_____ c. ______________________________

_____ d. ______________________________

_____ e. ______________________________

_____ f. ______________________________

_____ g. ______________________________

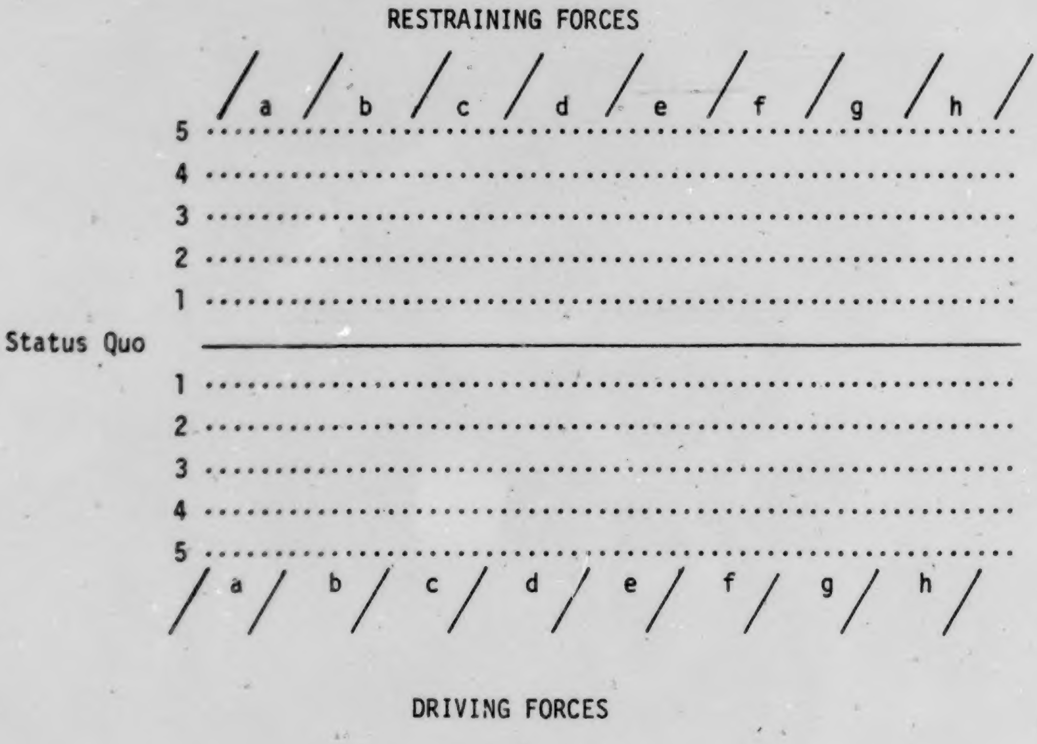
_____ h. ______________________________

7. In the spaces to the left of the letters in item 5, rate the driving forces from 1 to 5.

   1. It has *almost nothing* to do with the drive toward change in the problem.
   2. It has *relatively little* to do with the drive toward change in the problem.
   3. It is of *moderate importance* in the drive toward change in the problem.
   4. It is an *important factor* in the drive toward change in the problem.
   5. It is a *major factor* in the drive toward change in the problem.

8. In the spaces to the left of the letters in item 6, rate the forces restraining change, using the number scale in item 7.

9. In the following chart, diagram the forces driving toward change and restraining change that you rated in items 7 and 8: First write several key words to identify each of the forces driving toward change (a through h), then repeat the process for forces restraining change. Then draw an arrow from the corresponding degree of force to the status quo line. For example, if you considered the first on your list of driving forces (in item 5) to be rated a 3, draw your arrow from the 3 line in the "a" column up to the status quo line.



PART III: CHANGE STRATEGY

10. Select two or more restraining forces from your diagram and then outline a strategy for reducing their potency.

11. Apply the following goal-setting criteria (the SPIRO model) to your change strategy:

S--*Specificity:* Exactly what are you trying to accomplish?
P--*Performance:* What behavior is implied?
I--*Involvement:* Who is going to do it?
R--*Realism:* Can it be done?
O--*Observability:* Can others see the behavior?

"Reducing Resistance"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

D. Objective: Identify various strategies for making change in their home institutions.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Useful as an activity to follow up "Force-Field Analysis" (VI.D.1.), this strategy will focus on barriers to change and how to overcome them. Blockages to change are important to consider: They can sabotage plans before they begin or stop them once they are in progress. This activity may be particularly appropriate for those groups for which limiting forces are the biggest block to accomplishing change.

The step-by-step plan provides a structure for deciding how to overcome these barriers. Be sure to follow the guidelines for brainstorming in the introductory material. Try to group participants from the same institutions together, but make sure participants present their ideas to the group. Participants will benefit from this idea sharing.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Define a problem applicable to the problem in the institution and related to BORN FREE.

c. Define an objective applicable to the problem in the institution and related to BORN FREE.

d. Identify the facilitating forces for reaching your objective. Brainstorm.

e. Identify the limiting forces which might keep you from reaching your objective. Brainstorm.

f. Pick three or four limiting forces that seem most important; choose one that seems more solvable, and develop an action plan following these steps:

   1) Brainstorm ideas for eliminating barrier.
   2) Choose those ideas that seem best.
   3) Decide who should expedite which idea.
   4) List needed materials and resources.
   5) Arrange ideas and actions into a time sequence.

  6) Make plans for commencing the action sequence. (Who is going to do what, when, and how?)
  7) Make plans for periodic evaluation.
  8) Be prepared to revise your plans as needed.

g. Discuss all the things that could go wrong, and ways to prevent them or prepare for them.

h. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/2 hours

Resources Needed:

Handout: Leader may wish to provide a handout sheet for the steps listed above.
Reference: Stiller (1976).

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will develop an "action plan" for eliminating or reducing resistance or barriers.

"Assertiveness"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

D. Objective: Identify various strategies for making change in their home institutions.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Assertiveness training is an important aspect of change process. Since many people have misconceptions about the assertiveness concept, it is important to point out to participants that it involves standing up for individual rights and expressions of thoughts, feelings, and beliefs in an honest and appropriate manner. It does not involve infringing on the rights of others.

It would be preferable to have someone give an experiential presentation on assertiveness to participants prior to this activity. Contact local organizations (National Organization for Women, various women's or self-help groups) for the names of individuals who could give this presentation. The strategy below assumes participants have received information on assertiveness prior to the activity.

Make sure to ask participants to brainstorm and record relevant situations where they have difficulties. This is also preferable for exercise VI.D.4., "Situational Assertiveness."

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants individually identify one assertiveness problem related to sex-role stereotyping in their institution. They should write four responses: their normal response, an assertive response, an aggressive response, and a non-assertive response.

c. In small groups, share responses. Add suggestions for responses to each other's problem areas.

d. Role play situations with help from the group's feedback.

e. Summarize in large group.

Alternative strategy:

Instead of having participants think of an assertiveness problem, give them the option of either picking one of their own assertiveness problems or choosing one from the list in VI.D.4., "Situational Assertiveness."

Then continue as above.

Minimum Time Required: 1/2 hour

Resources Needed:

Handout: (optional) Copies of "Assertiveness Situations" for all participants, from next activity, VI.D.4., "Situational Assertiveness"

Outcome Criterion:

Given an assertiveness problem, participants will write assertive, non-assertive, and aggressive responses.

"Situational Assertiveness"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

D. Objective: Identify various strategies for making change in their home institutions.

4. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

It is necessary to complete strategy VI.D.3. "Assertiveness," or pick some of the situations attached to that activity. It is preferable to role play personal situations, however, because the participants may be helped and have more interest in the activity. Practical application of assertiveness in role playing is important for participants.

As leader, it is important that you make sure that participants know the differences between assertive, non-assertive, and aggressive responses before beginning this activity. Discussion of these topics would be beneficial.

Be sure to follow the guidelines for role playing in the introductory material of this packet. Role playing can be either an extremely beneficial technique or a threatening technique, depending on the leadership strategies used.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Do VI.D.3., "Assertiveness," prior to this exercise. Then role play two or three of the situations presented in the attached handout using assertive, aggressive, and non-assertive responses.

c. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Assertiveness Situations"

Outcome Criteria:

Given a narrative or situation dealing with an assertiveness problem, participants will identify assertive, non-assertive and aggressive responses.

ASSERTIVENESS SITUATIONS

1. You have just told your supervisor that you would like to begin a teacher support group, and she/he replied: "I really don't think that's necessary. Our relationships are just fine."

2. You have just made your opening remarks to your first workshop, and a participant in the audience shouts, "That's a lot of bullshit."

3. To male: Teacher X walks into your office, laughs knowingly, and says, "I see you're really getting into the women's thing. How'd they rope you into it?"

4. To anyone: You know minority women have it made with affirmative action--being both a minority and a woman.

5. To a white woman: Why aren't minority women involved in your women's support group or organization?

6. To woman: Teacher X stops you in the hallway and says, "I really like what you're doing in career development. You know you're just not like those women's lib types."

7. Teacher X walks into your office and with concern says, "I know you're very much interested in the whole sex role thing but we really do have more serious concerns--racism is the big issue in this school." (Or: Reverse the situation or have participants add their own institution's "big issue.")

8. You, a female, have just made a recommendation at the faculty meeting about an issue that concerns you, but it is passed over.

9. Do number 8 plus: Five minutes later, the same recommendation is made by a male, responded to, and voted on.

10. You've asked the male chair of a department why there are so few women who chose the field. He responds, "We've tried, but women just aren't interested in this area."

11. Male to female: You know, I think if "women's lib" people would just have a little more humor, they'd get a lot further. They're too deadly serious all the time.

12. Male department chair to female faculty: "You shouldn't worry so much about how much you are making - you have a husband with a more than sufficient income."

Add your own.

"Range of Change Strategies"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

E. Objective: Become aware of the range of change strategies appropriate for home institutions.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

One of the reasons for this objective is that participants sometimes become so overwhelmed by the immensity of the problem of sexism that they end up doing nothing when they return to their own institution. This activity helps them to see that there is an enormous range of change strategies from which they may choose, some requiring a lot of time and some requiring very little.

Emphasize that people's situations differ, depending on their own situation, and they must decide what they can and cannot do. (The next objective and learning strategy--VI.E.2., "Commitment to Change"--gives strategies. See this activity for examples of strategies.)

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Leader presents the following to participants:

"There is an enormous range of things you can do in your own situation--from writing a letter to organizing a committee on sex bias in curriculum to doing a systems diagnosis of career-related sex bias in your institution. People's situations differ and it's important that you have a range of strategies to choose from so that you don't leave here feeling so overwhelmed that you end up retreating from the problem. Do what you can with your own time limitations, etc. This activity will give you the opportunity to look at a very wide range of change strategies."

c. Divide participants into groups of ten and have them brainstorm a list of change strategies, from the smallest and least time commitment involved to the largest. (See introductory material on brainstorming.)

d. Report the lists in the large group.

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 40-60 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Newsprint and magic markers

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list three examples in each category of strategies requiring minimum, medium, and maximum time commitments.

"Commitment to Change"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

E. Objective: Become aware of the range of change strategies appropriate for home institutions.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy is designed to help participants make their goals for change explicit in order to increase the likelihood of the changes taking place. The exercise should be done after VI.E.1., "Range of Change Strategies," so that these strategies can be included on the "Commitment to Change Strategies" worksheet.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Give participants a "Commitment to Change Stategies" worksheet which includes strategies they brainstormed previously. On this sheet they can indicate which strategies they feel they can commit themselves to and in what period of time.

Tell them these will not be collected (so they can be more honest in checking commitments). They are to take them home to use in evaluating their progress. However, if the participants are willing, the leader could make copies, keep one copy, give one to the participants, and after several weeks mail the copy as a reminder.

c. After people are finished, ask for volunteers to share what commitments they made.

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Commitment to Change Strategies"

Outcome Criteria:

Participants complete the "Commitment to Change Worksheet."

COMMITMENT TO CHANGE STRATEGIES: A WORKSHEET

Immediately	In one month	In six months	By 1 year from now	By 1 1/2 years from now	By 2 years from now	Monthly	Twice yearly	Periodically	
									Write letter to college newspaper challenging sex-biased article.
									Call a colleague on sex-biased remark or behavior.
									Work on not using sex-biased language when writing.
									Try to be conscious of my sex-biased attitudes and behaviors in interactions with others.
									Write up this workshop for college newspaper, college professional development report bulletin, etc.
									If teaching, ask students to monitor my behavior for sex bias.
									If teaching, raise questions about sex-role stereotyping in class. (For example: "What do you think the division of chapters in the history book says about the sex bias of the book?" "Do you think the women reflected the women of the period?" "What were the women doing during this period?" "How do you think the novel might have been written differently if sexism did not exist?"
									Add supplementary materials about women to my courses (or about men where applicable, e.g., in home economics and nursing).
									Organize a one-half-day, inservice workshop on ____________.
									Integrate non-sex-biased material into the courses I teach. (Include multiracial and economic-class representation.)

Immediately	In one month	In six months	By 1 year from now	By 1 1/2 years from now	By 2 years from now	Monthly	Twice yearly	Periodically	
									Develop a new course on ______________________.
									Add a couple of units on women (or men, where applicable) to a present course.
									Set up a committee to analyze curriculum for sex bias.
									Set up a "math anxiety" clinic and course for women students.
									Set up a Career Resource section on women.
									Set up a "Women and Men in Nontraditional Careers" year-long seminar series.

"How To Be a Process Helper"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

F. Objective: Apply a systems model of content and process in developing strategies for change in home institutions.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy is designed to introduce participants to the Havelock model for change process consultation. In order to be effective agents for change, it is important for participants to understand their role(s), the needs of the client, and strategies for change.

Hand out the "Summary of 'How To Be a Process Helper'" prior to the session and, where possible, have participants become familiar with The Change Agent's Guide to Innovation in Education (Havelock, 1973). Refer to other strategies in Goal VI for use with this strategy.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Have participants divide into small groups (five to six persons) for discussion. Ask each group member to identify a goal for change in their institution and apply Havelock's six-stage model. Have them select one goal from the group for discussion.

c. Ask each group to report to the large group the goal selected for discussion and the application of the model.

d. Leader summarizes, using the results to focus the discussion on the change process.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Summary of 'How To Be a Process Helper'" (Havelock, 1973)
References: Havelock (1973), Blocher (1975)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will select one goal for change and will write a short paragraph utilizing the Havelock six-stage model.

SUMMARY OF "HOW TO BE A PROCESS HELPER"

R. G. Havelock, in his text The Change Agent's Guide to Innovation in Education (1973), uses a six-stage model of change process consultation:

Stage I:	Building a Relationship (between change agent and client)
Stage II:	Diagnosing the Problem (awareness of your needs and those of your clients)
Stage III:	Acquiring Relevant Resources
Stage IV:	Choosing the Solution
Stage V:	Gaining Acceptance
Stage VI:	Stabilizing the Innovation and Generating Self-Renewal

The first and perhaps most important step in the consulting process is establishing contact with the client population and building a relationship. The goal of such a relationship is to work collaboratively and to focus not on the solution to the problem per se, but on the target's ability to develop its own problem-solving capability. The focus is on the person or persons using the change agent's services and the user's resources.

Stages are not necessarily successive and, in some cases, can occur simultaneously.

Havelock suggests that this framework for becoming a change agent can help us move from "education the way it is now" to "education the way we would like it to be."

"Change Process: Small Is Beautiful"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

F. Objective: Apply a systems model of content and process in developing strategies for change in home institutions.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

At this point it is hoped participants will be ready to create an action plan for bringing about change in career-related sex-role stereotyping and to use BORN FREE materials. There are many models for change in educational institutions. The particular one adapted by Project BORN FREE is the Rand Model for Innovative Change Programs in Educational Institutions (Berman and McLaughlin, 1974). The leader should read BORN FREE Technical Reports No. 6 (Keierleber and Hansen, 1978) and 7 (Keierleber, 1978) prior to using this strategy (especially pp. 36-56 and 61-74). Helpful background is also provided in the article by Hansen and Keierleber (1978).

Instructions:

a. Leader gives a mini-lecture on the Rand Model, presenting definitions of the three stages of 1) initiation, 2) implementation, and 3) outcomes and continuation.

b. Leader summarizes the influential factors in the institutions noted in relation to initiation and implementation in the first year of BORN FREE (Technical Report No. 6 by Keierleber and Hansen, pp. 36-56).

c. Leader presents in lecture or with overhead the major adaptations and trends of the first year of BORN FREE:

1) A decision to focus on reducing resistance.
2) Reducing the number of activities planned.
3) Faculty skills training for expanding options vs. attitude change.
4) Voluntary faculty participation in in-service programs.
5) Focus on career development rather than sex-role stereotyping.
6) Working through existing programs.
7) Direct interventions with students.
8) Reducing target group/problem focus.
9) Change in expectations.

d. Suggestions for discussion:

1) Why might the existence of previous career development or sex-fair programs contribute to acceptance of BORN FREE?
2) How can change agents deal with those who have very strong beliefs about maintaining traditional male and female roles?

3) Can an intervention team do much to overcome barriers such as program retrenchment, overworked staff, and reorganization?
4) Why is the support of key administrators so critical? What form can such support take? Is there ever a time when administrative support may be more of a hindrance than a help?
5) What are the arguments for trying to develop programs which reach students directly rather than the teachers, counselors, administrators and parents?
6) Why is "Small Is Beautiful" a good philosophy for educational change programs such as BORN FREE?
7) What additional "influential factors" do you anticipate in your own institution which might affect BORN FREE programs?

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/4 hours

Resources Needed:

References: Berman and McLaughlin (1974)
Keierleber and Hansen (1978)
Hansen and Keierleber (1978)
Keierleber (1978)

Outcome Criteria:

Participants will identify five influential factors which affect program implementation in career development and sex-role stereotyping.

Participants will anticipate three additional influential factors which exist in their own institutions.

"Creating an Implementation Plan"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

F. Objective: Apply a systems model of content and process in developing strategies for change in home institutions.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This could be the capstone activity of a workshop, the application of knowledge, skills, and attitudes learned. The strategy is designed to assist participants in the creation of implementation plans for home institutions. Participants will find utilization of other change process strategies in Goal VI, as well as selected strategies from other goals, helpful in completing this strategy.

The strategy is designed to be completed in four consecutive 1 1/2-hour sessions. Most of the tasks are to be completed in small, mixed institution groups; however, some tasks are to be completed outside the session. You may choose to expand or limit the time accordingly.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Divide participants into small mixed-institution groups. If possible, groups should be divided by level (i.e., elementary, secondary, postsecondary, higher education) or by interest area (i.e., state agencies, junior colleges, vocational-technical schools).

c. Hand out "Systems Framework for Implementation Plan" and present a brief overview on change process using the handout as a guide. This brief presentation can provide an opportunity 1) to summarize content from other learning strategies in Goal VI, and 2) to bring together highlights from readings on change process.

d. Pass out the appropriate session outline and explain briefly what is to be covered, referring back to the overview sheet where necessary. Be prepared to answer questions or provide clarification. Make sure that group members understand the tasks to be completed in the group.

e. Have each small group select a recorder to report back to the large group.

f. At the close of the fourth session ask individual participants to share their completed plan with their appropriate developmental level (i.e., elementary, secondary, postsecondary, higher education) or interest area.

g. Have small groups reconvene as one group and ask the recorders to report the highlights of the implementation plans presented in the small groups.

h. Summarize the reports utilizing the highlights to emphasize the elements of change process.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/2 hours for each of the four sessions

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Systems Framework for Implementation Plan"
Outlines for "Creating an Implementation Plan," Sessions I-IV

Outcome Criterion:

See appropriate session outlines.

SYSTEMS FRAMEWORK FOR IMPLEMENTATION PLAN[1]

I. Planning

- Needs Assessment - National Data, Local Data
  - Status assessment
  - Goal assessment
- Systems Diagnosis or Analysis
  - Human resources - identify support group
  - Media resources
- Rationale for Program
  - Career Development Conceptual Framework
  - Change Process Evaluation - Rand Model
- Establish Needs and Goals

II. Developing and Structuring

- Specify objectives
- Prioritize objectives
- Analyze resources
- Consider alternate strategies, illustrative programs
- Select alternate strategies related to objectives

III. Implementing

- Specify process objectives
- Develop staff
- Reward and reinforce staff
- Select priority strategies
- Try out and monitor activities
- Build communication network about ongoing activities

IV. Evaluating

- Evaluate process
- Evaluate products developed (if any)
- Analyze change process activities
- Analyze cost/benefit
- Decide "go/no go" - Continuation plans
- Communicate results to all significant persons

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[1] Adapted from: Jones, G., Dayton, C., and Gelatt, H., New methods for delivering human services. New York: Human Sciences Press, 1977.

CREATING AN IMPLEMENTATION PLAN

Session I: Planning

Note to Leader:

This session is designed to acquaint the participants with the overall elements of change process and, more specifically, methods for conducting a needs assessment/systems diagnosis and developing a rationale for change.

Instructions:

a. Divide the participants into appropriate small groups (developmental level or task). Hand out a copy of "Support-Group Communication Guidelines" and discuss.

b. Describe the agenda for the session (a brief handout may be helpful) and set time allotments for the activities to be completed.

c. Hand out materials for all four sessions and provide an overview of the team tasks to be completed in session one (see d. below).

d. Have participants complete "Armchair Perceptions" of their institutions and share with the group (thirty minutes). (Hand out "Guidelines for Systems Diagnosis" and "Worksheet for Systems Diagnosis" for use by participants.)

e. Using the background readings, handouts, and other completed module strategies, have participants work separately on their "Rationale" for their implementation plan. (This may be most effectively completed as a take-home task.)

f. Summarize Session I and lay groundwork for Session II.

Minimum Time Required: 1½ hours

Resources Needed:

Handouts: "Support-Group Communication Guidelines," "Worksheet for Systems Diagnosis," "Armchair Perceptions," "Guidelines for Systems Diagnosis," "Developing a Rationale," "A Career Management Model for Counselor Involvement" (see Strategy I.A.3.) and "Needs Assessment"

References: Parker (1975), Hansen and Gysbers (1975), Sargent (1977), Benson (1975)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will complete "Armchair Perceptions" and "Developing a Rationale" worksheets.

VI.F.3.
(Session 1)

SUPPORT-GROUP COMMUNICATION GUIDELINES FOR IMPLEMENTATION PLAN[1]

This is your SUPPORT GROUP! Right now you are individuals just beginning to become acquainted with each other, but the goal of your group is to become a positive support to each other, exploring and changing your own behavior, both within the group and in the rest of your daily life, so that each of you becomes a more productive and satisfied person.

We ask that you commit yourself to the following behaviors and remind you that you can expect your support-group members to use them also.

1. Learn to listen:
    a. as actively and constructively as you are able,
    b. with acceptance and positive interest,
    c. hearing each other out, focusing on understanding the situation and the other's feelings,
    d. then asking questions to draw out the other, to expand, or clarify rather than giving your opinion immediately,
    e. then checking back with the speaker so she/he knows you understood what she/he said.
2. Learn to participate:
    a. as fully, openly, and constructively as you are able,
    b. accepting and owning your own behavior, thoughts, and feelings as part of yourself.
    c. recognizing that openness involves risk taking, that by taking risks you can discover who you are and what you are capable of,
    d. keeping the interchanges non-judgmental with the attitude "what can each of us learn from this that will make our relating and supporting more productive and more satisfying?"
3. Learn to process or re-examine your own behaviors and feelings as thoughtfully and thoroughly as possible at the end of each support group session.
4. Respect the confidential nature of what is shared in your group.
5. Remember, respect and remind yourself (and others) of this commitment when necessary.

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[1] From: Source unknown.

WORKSHEET FOR SYSTEMS DIAGNOSIS

I. Introduction and Rationale

1. General goals and concerns for your school with regard to Project BORN FREE goals

2. Reasons, goals for systems diagnosis of your school

II. Descriptive and Demographic Data

1. General description of type of school

2. General description of community school serves

3. Characteristics of staff

   a. number of staff
   b. number of males, females
   c. age, range and mean
   d. educational levels (BA, MA, MA+, PhD, EdD)

4. Characteristics of students

   a. number of students
   b. number of males, females
   c. grades
   d. future plans
   e. follow-up data: post-graduation actual choices

5. Characteristics of parents

   a. married, single
   b. average number of children
   c. ethnic background, distribution
   d. educational levels
   e. occupations: fathers, mothers

III. Project Data

1. Description of current and past career development/career education activities and programs

2. Description of current and past activities and programs with regard to sex roles and sex-role stereotyping

3. Description and indicators of support for Project BORN FREE

4. Description and indicators of resistance to Project BORN FREE

IV. Communication Data: Inhibitors and Facilitators

1. Administrators - teachers
2. Teachers - students
3. Counselors - students
4. Parents - students
5. Students - students
6. Bulletin boards, displays

WORKSHEET FOR SYSTEMS DIAGNOSIS

V. Analysis of Options

1. Curricular choices
    a. types of curricular courses, programs available
    b. number of students enrolled in courses, programs: males, females

2. Extracurricular choices
    a. number of extracurricular activities available for males, females, both
    b. types of activities available for males, females, both
    c. participation rates for males, females in activities

3. Counseling and guidance

VI. Sources and Methods for Information Collection

1. Systematic observation of behavior

2. Protocol interviews with students, staff, parents

3. "Homemade" questionnaires

4. Standardized surveys, tests, questionnaires

5. Institutional policy statements, reports, newsletters

6. Local summary review, research reports

7. Unsummarized available data

VII. Plan for Information Collection

1. Important characteristics of persons providing information

2. Methods, procedures used in collecting information

3. Methods, procedures used in analyzing, summarizing information

VIII. Additional Activities

Description of activities planned (if any) in the next few months related to Project BORN FREE goals (other than systems diagnosis and needs assessment activities)

ARMCHAIR PERCEPTIONS

Change Process	Implementation Strategy

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GUIDELINES FOR SYSTEMS DIAGNOSIS

Change Process

1. Assess the extent of commitment to the project. Involve as many people as possible in dealing with the issue.
2. Analyze the communication network, formal and informal, within the system.
3. Examine the formal statements of institutional goals, objectives, and missions.
4. Identify your support system--those sympathizers with the goals of the project, those willing to have active involvement, those who may be persuaded.
5. Identify form and amount of resistance to project goals.
6. Analyze the decision-making structure--how decisions are influenced and made within the system, who has the power.

Project Product

1. Identify what is being done to facilitate student career development--the components of a career education program.
2. Identify what is being done to inhibit or limit career options--attitudes, practices and behaviors.
3. Identify ways in which parents are involved in the school, where appropriate.
4. Identify the extent to which there is sex-role stereotyping in career development programs or activities.
5. Identify school policies which suggest sex-role stereotyping.
6. Identify future plans of students who attend the institution (if available).
7. Identify nature and range of overall opportunity perceptions of students.
8. Identify role possibility perceptions of students.
9. Identify actual decision points students face at different grades, stages, or levels.
10. Identify "decision influences" in the educational structure and in relationships.

DEVELOPING A RATIONALE

(BORN FREE Preliminary Implementation Plan)

Status Assessment:

Outcome Assessment:

Local Documentation of Need:

National Documentation of Need:

Conceptual Framework from Literature:

NEEDS ASSESSMENT[1]

PURPOSE, RATIONALE, DEFINITIONS

Purpose of the Guide

The purpose of this guide is to provide strategies of organizational change as applied to career education. A focused-planned success approach to program implementation will be illustrated with specific career education examples.

Definitions

The theoretical and philosophical base for the specific examples of career education implementation comes from the developmental self-concept approach to career development of Super (1957). Super described career development as a life long process of implementing a self-concept with satisfaction to self and with benefit to society. Career is defined much more broadly than occupational or paid employment activities and encompasses much of parenting and household activities as well as volunteer services and creative leisure activities. The pattern of social roles that a person might take including the role of student, parent, volunteer, and job holder can be called one's career pattern.

A wide-range of definitions of career education can create confusion and stress when it comes to the implementation of programs. A continuum of narrow to broad definitions is as follows:

Vocational Education	Occupational Education	Career Education	Life Style Education
Job Training	Occupational Information	--Self-awareness --Explorations of Life Styles --Decision-making --Interpersonal Skills --Meanings and Values of Work --Entry Level Job Skills	Occupational Life Family LIfe Social Life Leisure Life

The example programs will draw heavily from the broader definitions which also include job training as a component of career maturity. Any implementation team needs a clarity of purpose, common labels, and explicitly agreed upon objectives--usually arrived at by a process of negotiation.

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[1] From: Benson, A. N. Implementing career education programs, 1975. Permission to reprint granted by Minnesota State Department of Education.

A broad developmental model of career development suggests several needs for career education: (1) an inclusion of all of the curriculum areas as well as the informal curriculum experiences of a school, such as co-curricular activities, student grading, and discipline policies; (2) the cooperation of all curriculum areas, pupil personnel services, and the community; and (3) planned developmental activities K-12 and beyond.

In analyzing the research on worker satisfaction and alienation the *Work in America* report (1972) also suggests a fourth need for career education which entails redesigning the school as a participation management work place for students as well as teachers. In one sense career education is a way of thinking about schools and can include broad goals and integration by providing:

1. A bridge between humanistic child-centered trends in education and traditional subject matter areas.

2. A bridge between teachers at different grade levels and in different departments.

3. A bridge between school and community.

A definition of career education needs to become specific enough to suggest what a person needs for career maturity. A broad definition of career education suggests the following:

A. Realistic knowledge and positive attitudes toward self: interests, talents, goals.

B. An awareness of occupational and life-style options.

C. Skills in personal decision-making and life planning.

D. Ability to relate to people.

E. Realistic expectations and awareness of work values.

F. Salable job skills.

CONCEPTUAL MODELS

A conceptual model of career development with student outcome objectives is a necessity. The framework of student learning objectives needs to be built upon the two bases of (1) the changing occupational and social structure and (2) the research on learning and human development. Examples of basic occupational-social changes include an increasing emphasis on knowledge and service occupations, multiple occupational roles in one's lifetime, a large number of young and old people, the decline of authoritarian values and institutions, the increasing educational levels of all segments of society, and the increasing expectation of life style and occupation as meeting needs for self-actualization. Examples of human learning and development influences include the emphasis of life stages, developmental tasks, and sequential coping skills, and the growth of psychological education in areas of values, self-esteem, creativity, destiny control, and interpersonal competence.

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

In considering process and outcome goals the use of behavioral objectives can help us know when we have achieved a broadly stated goal as well as increasing the clarity of our intentions (Mease and Benson, 1973). One potential benefit from focusing on specific program and instructional objectives is greater job satisfaction for ourselves as educators. Self-reinforcement resulting from knowledge of positive results is more probable if we specify our objectives and then prioritize our implementation efforts and evaluate our outcomes based on measureable objectives.

Most career education objectives encompass what is often called the behavioral domains of the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor areas (Bloom, 1956; Krathwohl, 1956; and Dave, 1956). When considering assessing needs and evaluating progress a useful classification of process and outcome objectives is observable and nonobservable behavior.

In order to provide a framework for career development learning activities which can be infused into all areas of the formal and informal curriculum, an example set of goals and objectives will be detailed. A set of objectives can provide the conceptual framework for needs assessment, program planning, and program evaluation. The objectives can be implemented at various levels of mastery on a K-adult basis and are found at the end of this chapter.

A SYSTEMS APPROACH

Rationale

The first step in the process of career education program implementation is a local needs assessment study. Needs assessment is the ongoing systematic gathering of baseline data necessary for program planning and generating motivation for change. Needs assessment includes sampling the perceptions of students, staff, and community as to lacks or deficiencies which can be fulfilled by specified goals and objectives. By a systems approach is meant the process steps in program implementation and includes:

1. Needs assessment
2. Analysis of the school's organizational framework
3. General program planning
4. Specific techniques and framework for implemention
5. Evaluation and recycling of steps 1 through 4

The determination of student needs includes an analysis of current school and community programs and resources, as well as student attitudes, skills, and knowledge. In the preliminary steps of information gathering, a base of support for change can be established by including teachers, administrators, parents, and students in the planning and execution of a career development needs study.

Even in the preliminary needs assessment process a broad conceptual framework of human growth and career development is needed. Inherent in the systems approach to program implementation are the characteristics of interdependence and balance of the implementation steps. For example, the results of the needs assessment study will determine the focus of the program activities and the evaluation. In the recycling process the nature of the program activities and the evaluation will determine the revision of the needs assessment study. Any career education program will only be as strong as the weakest component of the implementation system. For example, an elaborate determination of needs and objectives may not pay off in terms of program outcomes unless the planning and implementation of activities are of similar quality. The full potential of the needs study planning and implementing will not be realized unless the evaluation feeds back useful data for maintaining and revising the program. Innovative programs often overemphasize one or more of the process steps at the expense of other components. Within the context of limited resources it's better to seek balanced quality among the program implementation cycle steps rather than neglecting any one phase--such as evaluation.

Where to Start

The reader is encouraged to apply the techniques of needs assessment and goal setting to one's own professional needs and job satisfaction in terms of strengths and areas for growth (see Mease and Benson, 1973 for a comprehensive description of this process). We also need to exercise whatever options we have in our occupational role to select the areas of intervention and program goals which are most likely to contribute to job satisfaction and professional growth. The following goal setting activity can be a helpful first step in implementing career education.

FIELD FORCE ANALYSIS

PERSONAL GOAL SETTING

I. Describe a goal or objective in a way it can be observed, measured or evaluated.

   A. Consider a goal in terms of short-range action in the next few days.

   B. Consider a longer range goal attainable through small increments or "successive approximations."

(cont.)

II. Diagram the field forces favoring your action plan to accomplish your goal. Consider:

   A. Personal interests, motivations

   B. Personal skills and abilities

   C. People support systems available

   D. Physical resources that can be brought to bear

   E. Other favorable factors

III. Diagram the field forces resisting your goal attainment

   A. Personal areas for growth

   B. Reactions of resistance by the people affected

   C. Physical resources not readily available

   D. Other resistance factors

A PERSONAL GOAL

Short-Range Goal:

Long-Range Goal:

Field Forces

Forces For	Forces Against
→	←

If possible share this goal and field force analysis with two or more other people in your support system.

Motivation for Change

In order to capitalize on the results of a needs assessment survey, one must determine whose perceptions of needs to use in setting goals and developing activities. Needs assessment includes the perceptions of students, staff, and community which will often contain common elements but also almost invariably contain major discrepancies. In some cases the discrepancies are partly semantics and degrees of emphasis; however, in all instances an explicit negotiation of goals with the target population is necessary. Open negotiation of needs and goals is part of the need tieing process (Mease and Benson, 1973). Need tieing is the art of eliciting the target population's needs as they perceive them and selectively meshing these needs with your professional assessment of their needs based on a sound conceptual framework of career development. The target population(s) must clearly see enough payoff in terms of their needs in order to exert the necessary efforts and assume the risks of the proposed change. True negotiation requires open and honest communication of intentions as well as perceptions of shared power and mutuality of influence on the part of all concerned parties. There are significant, but also subtle, differences in methodology and results between the career development change agent openly negotiating and influencing needs and goals with a target population and merely using "democratic packaging" to cover up devious power plays and manipulations of people and groups. One way to facilitate successful need tieing is to involve the target population(s) in the beginning of any career development programing--which includes the local needs study. . . .

Techniques of Needs Assessment

Techniques for assessing career development needs as expressed by students, staff, and community are part of total planning and evaluation of a systems approach to program implementation. The following seven techniques can be used to assess needs and evaluate progress: cognitive tests, interviews, attitude and reaction questionnaires, observation, simulation exercises, sociometric ratings, and the use of other indicators.

. . . Three essential characteristics of any needs assessment technique are specificity, reliability, and validity. Briefly, specificity refers to the need to gather concrete detailed information in order to assess strengths and areas for growth as well as explanations for the degrees of successes and failures found. Global evaluations are not sufficient when it comes to planning and revising activities. The reliability of assessment procedures refers to the consistency or predictability of test, questionnaire, or observational ratings either over time or across items or samples made at the same time. In general, clear-cut directions, pilot use of the assessment techniques, and larger numbers of items will increase reliability. In achievement testing conduct an item analysis to determine the average item difficulty level which ideally should be in the 50 to 70% correct range. Revising items so that they discriminate the top quarter of the sample for the bottom quarter will increase both reliability and validity.

Validity refers to the extent to which an assessment technique measures what it is supposed to measure. In designing test, questionnaire, or interview items it is important to sample the content of the behavioral objectives (content validity), which re-emphasizes the need for a prior conceptual framework of career development. Objectivity can be defined as the degree of similarity of observations or assessments made by two or more reporting sources. For example, if a teacher's observations of a student's sense of destiny control and planfulness is confirmed by a counselor's rating of the student's educational planning activities, a degree of objectivity is present. Often two different methods of assessing a program objective are available for comparison (con-current validity). Assessing the current achievement or attitudes of a student in order to predict future achievement or attitudes (predictive validity) is often the most difficult. For example, if we wish to assess the student's decision-making skills as demonstrated by the use of study or leisure time in order to predict skills used in post high school career planning, we need longitudinal data.

Often one uses school records, behavioral observations, or tests as indirect indicators of the attainment of instructional goals when direct measures are not feasible. Closely related to the use of indirect indicators is inferring the presence of some quality such as destiny control or ego strength to bridge the gap between the indicator and the behavior of concern (construct validity). For example, it's difficult to directly measure respect for workers (Objective V) and positive attitude toward self (Objective I); but we might infer such qualities by tests of awareness and understanding of worker contributions as well as by observing student behavior in classroom small group activity. The more indirect the assessment indicator is the more difficult it is to interpret the results of a local needs study. For example, making inferences about student self-esteem from attendance records is a questionable technique, especially when used in isolation.

In using any assessment technique with any population including students, staff, and community, it is important to be aware of the phenomenon of the "self-fulfilling prophecy." The self-fulfilling prophecy refers to the influence on people's responses which comes from their perception of the capability of the assessment agent to satisfy their needs. For example, if students perceive that the teacher or counselor asking about their career needs is sincerely interested and capable of helping them, the results will be more accurate.

Another validity factor in needs assessment is the trust level between the assessment population and the assessors. Concerns about who is going to see the data and how is the data going to be used along with potential objections to invasion of privacy can significantly affect validity. An honest explanation to everyone concerned as to the purpose of the needs study, how the information will be used, and who it will be shared with is a necessary ethical and practical responsibility.

Another assessment procedural concern is the sampling methods used. Needs assessment must consider all relevant populations including students, graduates, parents, and other community residents, teachers, and administrators; and in some instances state and federal agencies. Considering a balanced approach to the quality of each implementation step, it is usually not feasible to sample every person in each relevant population. A random sample of 5 to 15 percent of the assessment population is often practical. If the sample is selected with some degree of randomness or known bias factors are sampled on a stratified random basis, the data are less expensive to obtain, analyze, and interpret.

TESTS AND QUESTIONNAIRES

... The following survey might be used to determine what junior or senior high students' needs are in the area of personal decision-making and life planning.

PREASSESSMENT SURVEY

DIRECTIONS: Decide if you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. If you mostly agree, blacken T on the answer sheet. If you mostly disagree, blacken F on the answer sheet.

1. It is almost impossible to plan your life in advance because so much depends on luck or chance.
2. The decisions you make now have a big effect on your life in later years.
3. Upon graduation from high school, a final career choice should be made.
4. In the early high school years it is wise to keep your ideas about the future flexible.
5. As far as choosing leisure activities, spouse, or occupation is concerned, something will come along sooner or later.
6. It's probably just as easy to be successful in one occupation as it is in another.
7. By the time you are 15, you should have your mind pretty well made up about the occupation you intend to enter.

Choose the best answer:

8. The best single source of information for occupational research is the
    a. Occupational Outlook Handbook
    b. Newspaper want ads
    c. Dictionary of Occupational Titles
    d. Employment Opportunities by the State Employment Service
9. In personal occupational planning, each student should study
    a. Approximately three occupations
    b. All occupations
    c. The skills of personal planning
    d. One occupation

(cont.)

10. Tests can best help a student determine
    a. Values
    b. Interests
    c. Odds of success and failure
    d. Both a and b

The following questionnaire gathering information from senior high students was used in planning a comprehensive K-12 career education program.

SURVEY OF SENIOR HIGH STUDENT ATTITUDES REGARDING CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Name _______________ (optional)
Grade _______________

1. How do you feel about the help available in selecting electives?
   _____ a. about right
   _____ b. more than necessary
   _____ c. too little help--explain _______________________
   ____

2. Whose advice did you consider in selecting electives? (Check as many as apply)
   _____ a. teacher
   _____ b. counselor
   _____ c. parents
   _____ d. friends

3. Have you had your school record (file in the Guidance Office) explained to you? _____yes _____no (if so, what items were explained? Check as many as apply)
   _____ a. standardized test scores
   _____ b. grades
   _____ c. other information
   If yes, how helpful was it? _____much _____some _____none
   If no, do you feel it would be helpful? _____yes _____maybe
   _____no Why or why not? _______________________
   ____

(cont.)

4. How much have courses you are taking or have taken in school influenced your thinking in your future education and career development? List the most influential courses: ____________

____

____

5. How many different occupations have you considered up to now?

_____ none

_____ 1

_____ 2-3

_____ 4-10

_____ more than 10

6. Are you interested in education beyond high school? _____yes

_____no If yes, who has influenced you?

_____ parents

_____ teachers

_____ counselors

_____ friends

_____ religious contacts

_____ other

7. If yes, what type of education are you considering? (Check those that apply)

_____ a. Four-year college

_____ b. Junior college (two years)

_____ c. Technical or vocational school

_____ d. Other

_____ e. None

8. What type of encouragement for post high school education have you received?

Parents:

_____ encouraged college only

_____ encouraged college or technical or trade school

_____ no encouragement noticed

Teachers:

_____ encouraged college only

_____ encouraged college or technical or trade school

_____ no encouragement noticed

(cont.)

Counselors:

_____ encouraged college only
_____ encouraged college or technical or trade school
_____ no encouragement noticed

9. How do people important to you feel about your educational and vocational plans?

	Approve	Disapprove	Don't Know
Parents			
Teachers			
Counselors			
Friends			
Others			

10. What would you suggest for education on careers? (Check those that apply)

_____ a. more counseling
_____ b. more reading of autobiographies
_____ c. more classroom study of different jobs
_____ d. none of the above

11. List the school subject areas where different types of work (careers) have been discussed: _______ _______ _______

_______ _______ _______

12. Who was the most helpful to you in making your present career decisions? Indicate the order of importance by numbering 1, 2, etc.

_____ Teacher
_____ Counselor
_____ Parent
_____ Friend
_____ Yourself
_____ Religious contacts
_____ Job contacts
_____ No one

(cont.)

13. Who was most helpful in exposing you to the ideas of work and different occupations and life style? Indicate the order of importance by numbering 1, 2, etc.

____ Teacher
____ Counselor
____ Parent
____ Friend
____ Yourself
____ Religious contacts
____ Job contacts
____ No one

14. Was there anyone in high school available to talk about occupations, to listen to your interests and evaluate your capabilities? ____yes ____no. If so, what area did he represent? (Examples: Math, Counseling, Science, Ind. Arts, etc.) ____________________

15. Is there a need for more specific programs in helping students to make career decisions in all academic areas? ____yes ____no

a. At what grade level? ____________
b. In what specific areas? ____________
c. Any specific programs? ____________

16. Was the 9th grade career planning unit worthwhile? ____yes ____no. If yes, check the areas where your knowledge was increased:

____ self-knowledge
____ skill in decision making
____ knowledge of vocations
____ knowledge of educational opportunities

17. How helpful were the results of interest inventories used in the career planning unit?

____ very helpful
____ some help
____ no help

(cont.)

18. Do you feel that an elective course at the senior high level should be offered which is specifically designed to aid a student in post high school planning? _____yes _____no
_____ don't know.
If yes, what would you like to have included in this course? Check as many as apply:

_____ self-knowledge

_____ skill in decision making

_____ knowledge of vocations

_____ knowledge of educational opportunities

A comprehensive study of student career development needs prepared by the Research and Development Division of the American College Testing Program is available from:

ACT Publications
P.O. Box 168
Iowa City, Iowa 52240
Title "Nationwide Study of Student Career Development: Summary of Results"
ACT Research Report Number 61, November 1973
Price $1.00

The study results are based on a national sample of 32,000 students in 200 schools and focus on three areas:

What students say about their needs.

What students have done about career exploration and planning.

What students know about occupations and career planning.

Another project report that can be sent for is entitled "Toward Accountability--A Report on the Mesa Approach to Career Guidance, Counseling, and Placement," 1973. This project report covers needs assessment, planning, and evaluation and is available from:

Byron E. McKinnon
Coordinator of Guidance
Mesa Public Schools
Guidance Services Center
14 West Second Avenue
Mesa, Arizona 85202

STUDENT OUTCOME OBJECTIVES

In order to provide a conceptual framework for career development learning activities which can be infused into all areas of the curriculum, a three-level set of goals and objectives is provided. The model of career education elaborated here has five basic goals centered around self-esteem, decision-making, life style and vocational exploration, interpersonal competence, and work ethic. Elaborating each of the five basic goals are five or six performance objectives. At the third level of specificity there are two or three behavioral objectives subsumed under each performance objective. It is suggested that any career education model encompass a set of goals and objectives K-12.

AN EXAMPLE FRAMEWORK OF STUDENT OUTCOME OBJECTIVES

I. To implement a positive self-concept with awareness of personal characteristics as they relate to career roles.

  A. Analyzes strengths in terms of skills, developed abilities, interests and potential for growth.

    1. The student can relate strengths and personal resources to preferred life style.

    2. The student can project and support a plan for personal development through educational-vocational planning.

  B. Analyzes personal values in terms of tentative career plans and projected life style.

    1. The student can identify the values inherent in tentative life style plans.

    2. The student can prioritize values in relationship to tentative life style.

    3. The student demonstrates skill in resolving value conflicts between personal values and the environmental press of projected career-life style planning.

  C. Analyzes the social roles and life style implications of tentative career plans.

    1. The student can describe the social behavior expectations of preferred occupation(s) and relate this to self-concept.

    2. The student can describe the range of personal freedom to implement self-concept in a variety of occupation(s).

(cont.)

D. Describes the potential sources of satisfaction and self-expression in the preferred occupation(s).

1. The student can relate psychological needs to tentative life career plans.

2. The student can project satisfaction of economic needs through tentative career plans.

3. The student describes ways in which interests and talents can be expressed through tentative career plan(s) and life style(s).

E. Analyzes personal values and needs for achievement in terms of career aspirations.

1. The student describes in a positive way success needs and actively copes with fears of failure.

2. The student compares success aspirations with workers in the various occupation(s).

F. Demonstrates personal contributions to society.

1. The student participates in work experiences such as entry level jobs and describes contributions through work.

2. The student participates in family, school, and community activities and describes contributions.

II. To apply decision-making skills to personal life planning.

A. Analyzes tentative life style plans with a decision-making model.

1. The student describes aspirations, alternative courses of action and the field forces affecting goal attainment.

2. The student formulates sequential short- and long-range tentative plans with identification of decision strategies used.

B. Realistically predicts the probable consequences of tentative personal plans.

1. The student describes the outcomes of tentative career decisions in terms of personal goals and effects upon significant others.

(cont.)

2. The student can describe the odds of success and failure of personal plans from a personal viewpoint.

3. The student modifies tentative personal plans in the light of new information and chance factors.

C. Exhibits responsibility for the consequences of educational-vocational decisions and personal goal striving.

1. The student accurately attributes to oneself the elements of status for which one is personally responsible.

2. The student takes the required action to implement personal plans on a reality test basis.

D. Demonstrates coordinated decision-making in various life spheres and periods of time.

1. The student relates educational, occupational, family life, and recreational decisions into an integrated tentative life style.

2. The student projects into the future the consequences of decisions made now.

E. Exhibits planful use of resources in achieving personal aspirations.

1. The student's use of time and energies is congruent with stated goals.

2. The student budgets resources over long periods of time.

F. Utilizes the major informational resources needed in personal decision-making.

1. The student examines critically the advice given by significant others.

2. The student utilizes appropriate criteria for evaluating information.

III. To acquire increasing knowledge of educational-vocational possibilities, as well as experience in work related settings.

A. Describes the necessary preparation for a variety of occupation(s).

1. The student describes the educational and training requirements for personal career goals.

(cont.)

2. The student identifies the sources of financial assistance for any necessary education or experience.

3. The student describes the various job ladder progressions of several occupations.

B. Utilizes technical and nontechnical resources for gathering information about occupations.

1. The student critically evaluates and uses occupational information from school and mass media sources.

2. The student critically evaluates and uses occupational information from the community.

3. The student critically analyzes work related experiences.

C. Studies in detail the worker satisfactions and dissatisfactions in various career fields.

1. The student analyzes the sources of potential frustrations, satisfactions, dissatisfactions in the various career fields.

2. The student describes the financial compensation at various steps of the career ladder of a variety of occupation(s).

3. The student analyzes the ethical questions which confront workers and projects personal solutions.

D. Identifies the sources of power in various task situations and describes their potential personal effects.

1. The student describes the formal and informal power structures in various organization and career fields.

2. The student describes the potential effects of various leadership styles and organizational decision-making in task situation(s).

3. The student describes the potential personal implications of worker organizations such as unions and professional associations.

E. Makes personal career plans which take into account social, economic, and technological changes.

1. Describes the possible effects of social, economic, and technological changes upon preferred occupational role(s).

(cont.)

2. Identifies the common elements in occupation(s) which may transfer to other fields.

F. Experiences aspects of an entry level position in the school setting or in the community.

1. The student prepares for consideration by an employer when choosing from several job applicants.

2. The student applies job seeking skills, including application and interview procedures.

3. The student analyzes the compensations and promotional possibilities in entry job experience.

IV. To develop and apply the interpersonal competency skills required in preferred career and life style plans.

A. Identifies interpersonal characteristics necessary for various occupational role(s).

1. The student describes personal career potential in terms of interpersonal skills.

2. The student describes personal areas for growth in terms of interpersonal skills needed for career life style and develops an action plan.

B. Copes with the power exercised by others in work and work-related situations in ways which are self-rewarding.

1. The student correctly assesses formal and informal power structures in educational and work settings.

2. The student maintains a personal integrity in the face of different and sometimes conflicting expectations of others.

3. The student uses constructive problem-solving skills in conflict situations.

C. Exhibits interdependence and cooperation in task situations.

1. The student exhibits an awareness of the needs of others in task situations.

2. The student shares in the success of group goal attainment.

D. Displays knowledge and skill in applied group dynamics and work organization.

(cont.)

1. The student analyzes the structures and processes involved in productive group efforts.

2. The student is a contributing member of a work group or related organization.

E. Demonstrates effective use of interpersonal communication in work and work related situations.

1. The student clarifies and evaluates the messages and instructions of others.

2. The student communicates messages and instructions to others in a helpful manner.

3. The student receives and gives feedback and suggestions.

V. To develop a respect for work, including its personal, as well as its social, contributions and implications.

A. Describes ways in which careers allow movement between work, play, and creative leisure.

1. The student identifies ways in which career(s) affect personal growth and independence.

2. The student explains how work experiences and leisure activities can relate.

B. Describes work as a major means of changing one's personal environment, as well as society in general.

1. The student describes how he can work for personal and social changes within a variety of occupation(s).

2. The student describes social problems of today which future workers might help alleviate.

C. Understands the important and changing contributions of women and minority groups to society.

1. The student describes the effects on men and women of the breaking down of the traditional sex roles.

2. The student describes the effects of minority group discrimination.

D. Debates the ethic of individual success versus the ethic of collective striving for social well-being.

1. The student relates career aspirations to personal, as well as social, well-being.

(cont.)

   2. The student identifies potential conflicts between personal and social well-being and possible compromises.

   3. The student describes the interdependence of all workers in contributing to the well-being of society.

E. Identifies the changing meanings of work over time and across cultures.

   1. The student can describe pre-industrial and industrial work ethics.

   2. The student can begin to develop a personal work ethic based upon an increasingly service-oriented society.

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CREATING AN IMPLEMENTATION PLAN

Session II: Developing and Structuring

Note to Leader:

This session is designed to help participants set and prioritize objectives, analyze available resources, and consider possible strategies for change.

Instructions:

a. Describe the agenda for the session and set time allotments for the activities.

b. Have participants reconvene in their small groups and share briefly (five minutes each) their "Rationale" (Session I).

c. Have small groups select a recorder and ask them to brainstorm strategies for change in their own areas (fifteen minutes). At the end of fifteen minutes ask recorder to report these strategies and place on newsprint or on a blackboard for other participants to see. Summarize. (The leader may also wish to put these on mimeo and distribute them to all participants.)

d. Hand out "Career Development Programs: Strategies for Integration," "Building Strategies Worksheet," and the "BORN FREE Preliminary Implementation Plan Worksheet" as a structure in developing their plan.

Resources Needed:

Handouts: "Building Strategies Worksheet"
"BORN FREE Preliminary Implementation Plan Worksheet"
"Career Development Programs: Strategies for Integration" (See VI.C.3)
"The Politics of Training Teachers in Schools" (See III.B.5.)
References: Havelock (1973)
Blocher (1975)
Davis, Alexander & Yalon (1974)
"Summary of Secondary Literature Review"

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will complete the "Building Strategies Worksheet," transferring that information to the "BORN FREE Preliminary Implementation Plan Worksheet."

BUILDING STRATEGIES WORKSHEET

1. Review strategies VI.E.1., "Range of Change Strategies," and VI.E.2., "Commitment to Change."

2. Make a list of strategies you feel are possible using the strategies above, those from small-group brainstorms, and others you feel are appropriate.

3. Now, go back and put list in order of priorities, with most important being number one.

4. List pros and cons for each strategy.

5. Now, translate your strategies to the "BORN FREE Preliminary Implementation Plan Worksheet."

BORN FREE PRELIMINARY IMPLEMENTATION PLAN
WORKSHEET

Strategy	Resources	Need Area	Target Pop.	Behavioral Goals	Who's Responsible	Evaluation	When	Cost	Go No

CREATING AN IMPLEMENTATION PLAN

Session III: Implementing and Evaluating

Note to Leader:

This session is designed to help participants further develop their plans, paying close attention to process objectives, staff development, prioritizing of strategies and initiating/monitoring activities.

Instructions:

a. Describe the agenda for the session and set time allotments for the activities.

b. Have participants reconvene in their small groups and share briefly (five minutes each) the completed work from session II. Allow sufficient time for participants to react to the work completed and provide suggestions for other participants.

c. Continuing in small groups, have participants discuss the variables of implementation (see "Important Questions to Consider"), with particular emphasis placed on evaluation (see attached handouts on evaluation.)

d. Summarize. Leader should present short overview on consultation including various methods of evaluation. Ask participants to complete their "BORN FREE Preliminary Implementation Plan Worksheet" and prepare to present a brief summary of their plan in Session IV.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes--sharing and reacting to preliminary plans
45 minutes--completion of preliminary plan

Resources Needed:

Handouts: "BORN FREE Preliminary Implementation Plan Worksheet" (from Session II)
"Important Questions to Consider"
"Evaluation as an Integral Part of a Program"
"Some Definitions of Evaluation"
References: Havelock (1973); Davis, Alexander, and Yalon (1974);
Tennyson, Hansen, Klaurens, and Antholz (1975);
Benson (Ch. 3 - Use of Consultation, 1975);
Parker (1975); Argyris (1973)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will complete the "BORN FREE Implementation Plan Worksheet" and complete outline of their "BORN FREE Implementation Plan" for their home institutions.

IMPORTANT QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

(To be used with the "BORN FREE Preliminary Implementation Plan Worksheet")

1. What is my commitment? How much time and energy can I give to this plan?
2. Have I conducted an adequate systems diagnosis/needs assessment? Have I developed my goals, objectives, rationale? What is my conceptual framework?
3. Do I know my support system (formal/informal, direct/indirect)? Who are they?
4. Where/who are my resources (human, financial, other)?
5. Have I identified the strategies for change? The strategies for implementation? What are the alternative strategies?
6. What time lines have I developed?
7. How will I evaluate the elements of my implementation plan?
8. What resistances are apparent? How do I hope to handle these resistances? Are there areas of potential resistance?
9. What incentives/rewards will I provide for those involved in the change process?
10. Are my consultation skills adequate? What are my deficiencies in this area? Who/what might assist me in this process?
11. What is the real substance of my implementation plan? Is it realistic? Is it feasible? Is it manageable?
12. Have I obtained commitment from those to be affected by the change (e.g., administrators, teachers, parents)?

EVALUATION AS AN INTEGRAL PART OF A PROGRAM

WHY?	Needs Assessment	What needs can you cite that justify the existence of this program?
WHAT?	Developing Objectives	What are your objectives in the program, i.e., what objectives will the program accomplish to meet the needs under "Why"?
HOW?	Program Planning	How will you design the program so that it will meet its objectives?
HOW WILL YOU KNOW?	Evaluation	What kinds of information should be gathered so that you know if the "HOW" is meeting the "WHAT" for the "WHY"?

SOME DEFINITIONS OF EVALUATION

1. A process designed to assist management to obtain reasonably objective information about projects and programs in a regular fashion so that lessons learned can be applied to current planning decisions and future operations.

2. The process of determining the value or effectiveness of something for the purpose of decision making.

3. The process of determining the decision areas of concern and then selecting, collecting, analyzing, and providing significant information to help decision makers choose among alternatives.

4. a. It begins with the question "What are the consequences?" rather than the more limiting question "What are the objectives?"

   b. Its style of inquiry is more aptly characterized by the word "exploration" than the word "control."

   c. It sees the role of the evaluator as that of social scientist rather than that of a teacher, missionary, or reformer.

   d. Its purpose is to provide more complex bases for informed judgment.

CREATING AN IMPLEMENTATION PLAN

Session IV: Sharing and Wrap-up

Note to Leader:

This session is designed to provide wrap-up on implementation plans. Participants will share the outline of their plan with their small group.

Instructions:

a. Describe the agenda for the session and set time allotments for the activities.

b. Have the small groups reconvene. Ask each group to select a recorder to record the highlights of the implementation plan.

c. Ask participants to share their outline of their implementation plan in their small group. Group members are to serve as resource persons, providing reactions and suggestions to the plans.

d. Have the recorders report the highlights of the plans to the large group.

e. Summarize.

f. Have the participants submit two copies of their outlines to the leader for critiques and suggestions. The leader should then return one copy of the critiques plan to the participants for use in further development of their plan.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/2 hours

Resources Needed:

References: Havelock (1973); Blocher (1975); Jones, Dayton, and Gelatt (1977; Benson (Ch. 5, 1975); Davis, Alexander, and Yalon (1974)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will complete and share their BORN FREE Implementation Plan with the entire group, providing the completed copy for the session leader.

XIII. REFERENCES

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APPENDIX

A. BORN FREE PRODUCTS AND PUBLICATIONS

BORN FREE is a training and development program to broaden the range of career options for both women and men. Funded through the Women's Educational Equity Act Program, U.S. Office of Education, the program aims to create transportable career development training modules (training packets, workshop designs, nine videotapes, and viewers' guides) for parents, teachers, counselors, and administrators at all educational levels, kindergarten through higher education. The shortened title of Project BORN FREE is an acronym that expresses exactly what the project is about: Build Options, Reassess Norms, Free Roles through Educational Equity.

The 14 schools and higher education institutions participating in the project are Lincoln Elementary, Sunrise Junior High, and Mariner High School in White Bear Lake; Webster Elementary, Mounds Park Junior High, and Washington High School (replacing the St. Paul Open School, which participated in the Project during the first year) in St. Paul; Harley Hopkins Elementary, North Junior High, and Eisenhower High School in Hopkins. The higher education institutions involved in BORN FREE are Lakewood Community College, Normandale Community College, #916 Vocational Technical Institute, CLA Career Planning Office (University of Minnesota), and Augsburg College, Minneapolis.

During the first year of project operation, teams of teachers/professors and counselors/student personnel workers were named in each setting to identify needs and assess the career-related sex-role stereotyping in existence. Together with project staff from the University, primarily graduate students in Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology, the teams produced training materials to reduce career-related sex-role stereotyping in educational institutions. These materials and one completed videotape, "A World of Options," were field-tested at a local BORN FREE Summer Institute in 1977 at the University of Minnesota. Forty counselors, teachers, and administrators from the 14 institutions participating in BORN FREE attended the two-week Institute.

In the second year of project operation, the 40 participants from the local Summer Institute worked with the field-site members from the first year to implement BORN FREE activities in their respective schools and colleges. These activities have included in-service workshops and field-testing BORN FREE training materials.

The University of Minnesota staff served as consultants to the field-site teams during BORN FREE's second year. In addition, the staff revised the field-tested training materials, completed the remaining videotapes, developed the Video Viewers' Guides, and completed product and process reports. The University staff has consisted of a director, two administrative assistants, one general project assistant, three project assistants/consultants, one media specialist, three evaluators, a full-time secretary and a part-time clerk-typist. All of the staff except the secretary had a part-time appointment, mostly half-time.

A BORN FREE National Institute was held June, 1978, at the University of Minnesota. Over one hundred educators were selected to attend the institute. According to the original plan for the institute, each state was to be represented by one counselor and one instructor or administrator from various developmental levels, kindergarten through higher education. This plan was followed, for the most part, although the composition of the group varied somewhat due to variability in the quality and quantity of applications received from each state. The revised training materials and almost all nine videotapes were field-tested with this national group of educators. Upon their return home, the National Institute participants have begun to implement plans for infusing the BORN FREE goals and materials into their respective states and/or institutions. Each state implementation plan was a collaborative effort on the part of all participants from that respective state.

The institute was the last major activity prior to making final product revisions, completing project reports, and terminating the first two years of the project as of August 31, 1978. Attached is a list of the products and publications completed by staff in the two-year period.

I. PRINT TRAINING MATERIALS

These three training packets, combined with videotapes, form the core of the BORN FREE training materials. Each packet consists of 1) an introductory section with self-contained guidelines for users, 2) a set of experiential and cognitive learning strategies designed to help educators and parents change their attitudes and behaviors to expand career options for both women and men, 3) reprints of numerous articles and handouts used in the strategies, 4) a specially compiled Fact Pack with statistics on the status of women and men in the labor force, 5) an extensive set of references.

Hansen, L. S.; Pelcak, D.; Perreault, G.; & Dege, D. BORN FREE Training Packet to Reduce Sex-Role Stereotyping in Career Development: Elementary Level, August, 1978.

Hansen, L. S.; Hatfield, T.; Johnson, D.; Teeson, T.; Harper, J.; & Perreault, G. BORN FREE Training Packet to Reduce Sex-Role Stereotyping in Career Development: Secondary Level, August, 1978.

Hansen, L. S.; Perreault, G.; Lofgren, G.; Follett, C.; Watt, M. A.; & Boe, A. BORN FREE Training Packet to Reduce Sex-Role Stereotyping in Career Development: Postsecondary/Higher Education Level, August, 1978.

II. VIDEOTAPE TRAINING MATERIALS

BORN FREE has produced nine half-hour color videotapes and viewers' guides which are an integral part of the training materials. The tapes were built around developmental themes of career socialization drawn from the literature reviews. They were also based on problems identified in systems analyses completed by pilot institutions. The tapes were developed by L. Sunny Hansen, Director, and Phyllis Kragseth, Media Specialist, with technical production by University Media Resources, Arnold Walker, Executive Producer. Dolores Dege coordinated development of the viewers' guides. The tapes consist of interviews and vignettes largely of students, parents, and staff in the BORN FREE pilot institutions. "BORN FREE: A World of Options" received the Best Videotape Award in the American Personnel and Guidance Association Film Festival in Washington, D. C., March, 1978. It is hoped that the tapes eventually will be shown on broadcast television. However, they will be used primarily in programs and workshops for educators and parents to promote sex equity in career options.

Videotape No. 1 - BORN FREE: A World of Options
Viewers' Guide: Dolores Dege, Beverly Mills-Novoa, and L. Sunny Hansen

Videotape No. 2 - Men: Choices and Changes
Viewers' Guide: Dolores Dege, Tim Hatfield, Beverly Mills-Novoa, and L. Sunny Hansen

Videotape No. 3 - Women: Choices and Changes
Viewers' Guide: Dolores Dege, Gerri Perreault, Beverly Mills-Novoa, and L. Sunny Hansen

Videotape No. 4 - The Joy of Choosing
Viewers' Guide: Dolores Dege, Sue Warsett, L. Sunny Hansen, and Beverly Mills-Novoa

Videotape No. 5 - Parenting - Three Generations
Viewers' Guide: Dolores Dege, Phyllis Kragseth, L. Sunny Hansen, and Beverly Mills-Novoa

Videotape No. 6 - Parents as Influencers
Viewers' Guide: Dolores Dege, Phyllis Kragseth, Beverly Mills-Novoa, and L. Sunny Hansen

Videotape No. 7 - Schools as Influencers
Viewers' Guide: Dolores Dege, Doug Pelcak, L. Sunny Hansen, and Beverly Mills-Novoa

Videotape No. 8 - Colleges as Influencers
Viewers' Guide: Dolores Dege, Barbara Lofgren, Beverly Mills-Novoa, and L. Sunny Hansen

Videotape No. 9 - Why Change?
Viewers' Guide: Dolores Dege, Gerri Perreault, L. Sunny Hansen, and Beverly Mills-Novoa

The video viewers' guides, designed for workshop leaders, consist of a general introductory section on the purpose of the project, the tapes and guides, and a discussion of how the materials can be integrated into training workshops. Brief information is provided on career development, sex-role socialization, and change process, as well as on the development, rationale, and format of the tapes. A section on guidelines for showing the tapes reviews aspects of group process and provides discussion hints for conducting workshops on this topic. The last part of each guide presents an overview of the purpose of each tape, a summary of initial field-test results, and a set of questions relating to each tape segment. (Approximately 20 pages each.)

III. SUPPLEMENTARY TRAINING MATERIALS

The reviews of literature are designed to provide documentation of the need for attention to reducing sex bias in career development of all persons. They attempt to answer the questions, "What do we know about 'career socialization' at different levels of development?" and "What can we do through home, school, and college to reduce the barriers and expand the facilitators of career options for women and men?"

A. Reviews of Literature

Pelcak, D., et al. Selected Review of the Literature on Career Development and Sex-Role Stereotyping at the Elementary Level. Technical Report No. 1, August, 1977. (64 pages)

Johnson, D.; Harper, J.; Hatfield, T.; Teeson, T.; & Hansen, L. S. Selected Review of the Literature on Career Development and Sex-Role Stereotyping at the Secondary Level. Technical Report No. 2, August, 1977. (100 pages)

Follett, C.; Watt, M.; Hansen, L. S.; et al. Selected Review of the Literature on Career Development and Sex-Role Stereotyping at the Postsecondary/Higher Education Level. Technical Report No. 3, August, 1977. (113 pages)

B. Evaluation Reports

BORN FREE completed extensive evaluation of both its products and process. The product evaluation reports provide data on the validation of the training packets and the videotapes. They also report on the effectiveness of the BORN FREE training designs carried out in one state workshop and one national institute. Some data are also provided on workshops developed in pilot institutions.

The process reports provide exploratory evaluation of the process by which BORN FREE was carried out in the 14 pilot schools and colleges over a two-year period. The change process is analyzed according to the Rand Model of Educational Change, examining what happened as field-site staff, in consultation with University staff, made plans for initiation, implementation, and continuation of BORN FREE efforts in their institutions. The reports can be extremely useful to those attempting to bring about educational change in the area of sex equity in career options.

Warsett, S. Evaluation Report on Field Testing of Color Video Cassette and Training Packets. Technical Report No. 4, August, 1977. (65 pages)

Warsett, S. Evaluation Report on BORN FREE Videotapes, Training Packets and Selected Workshops. Technical Report No. 9, August, 1978. (approximately 100 pages)

Keierleber, D. Evaluation of the 1977 BORN FREE Summer Institute: A Workshop Model to Reduce Career-Related Sex-Role Stereotyping. Technical Report No. 5, August, 1977. (79 pages)

Penn, P. Evaluation of the 1978 BORN FREE National Institute: A Workshop Model to Reduce Career-Related Sex-Role Stereotyping. Technical Report No. 10, August, 1978. (approximately 75 pages)

Keierleber, D., & Hansen, L. S. Evaluation of Educational Change Process in Project BORN FREE Institutions, 1976-77. Technical Report No. 6, WEEA, USOE, College of Education, U of M, Mpls., May, 1978. (117 pages)

Krusemark, F. Evaluation of the Educational Change Process in Project BORN FREE Institutions, 1977-78. Technical Report No. 8, August, 1978. (approximately 100 pages)

Keierleber, D. Case Summaries of the Educational Change Process in Project BORN FREE Institutions, 1976-77. Technical Report No. 7, WEEA, USOE, College of Education, U of M, Mpls., May, 1978. (109 pages)

IV. PROJECT PROGRESS REPORTS

Project Progress Reports describe the internal development of Project BORN FREE over the two-year period. They describe each component of the project, provide brief statements of developments in project institutions, present evaluation highlights, include sample instruments and newsletters, discuss the process by which project goals were carried out, and give a candid appraisal of problems and progress in carrying out a project of this scope.

Hansen, L. S., & Jones, L. Project BORN FREE First Quarterly Report, Women's Educational Equity Act, United States Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, College of Education, U of M, Mpls, December, 1976. (25 pages)

Hansen, L. S. Project BORN FREE Second Quarterly Report, WEEA, USOE, College of Education, U of M, Mpls., March, 1977. (31 pages)

Hansen, L. S. Project BORN FREE Third Quarterly Report, WEEA, USOE, College of Education, U of M, Mpls., June, 1977. (26 pages)

Hansen, L. S., & Mills-Novoa, B. Project BORN FREE Annual Report, September 9, 1976-August 31, 1977. WEEA, USOE, College of Education, U of M, Mpls., October, 1977. (37 pages)

Hansen, L. S., & Mills-Novoa, B. Project BORN FREE First Quarterly Report, September 1, 1977-December 31, 1977. WEEA, USOE, College of Education, U of M, Mpls., 1978. (39 pages)

Hansen, L. S., & Mills-Novoa, B. Project BORN FREE Second Quarterly Report, January 1, 1978-March 31, 1978. WEEA, USOE, College of Education, U of M, Mpls., 1978. (49 pages)

Hansen, L. S., & Mills-Novoa, B. Project BORN FREE Third Quarterly Report, April 1-June 30, 1978. WEEA, USOE, College of Education, U of M, Mpls., 1978. (48 pages)

Hansen, L. S., & Mills-Novoa, B. Project BORN FREE Final Report, September 1976-1978. WEEA, USOE, DHEW, College of Education, U of M, Mpls., September, 1978. (approximately 65 pages)

V. INFORMATION SHARING

A. Publications

Hansen, L. S., & Keierleber, D. BORN FREE: A Collaborative Consultation Model for Career Development and Sex-Role Stereotyping. Personnel and Guidance Journal, March, 1978, 395-399.

Hansen, L. S. An Applied Developmental Model to Reduce Career-Related Sex-Role Stereotyping in Educational Institutions. In Resocialization of Sex-Roles (E. Waters and J. Goodman, Eds.). Washington, D. C.: National Vocational Guidance Association. (In press)

B. Papers Presented at National Conferences*

Johnson, D. "BORN FREE: Career-Related Sex-Role Stereotyping in Educational Institutions - Literature Review and Systems Analysis." Paper presented at American Psychological Association National Convention, San Francisco, CA, August 29, 1977.

Keierleber, D. "BORN FREE: Reducing Career-Related Sex-Role Stereotyping in Educational Institutions - Process and Product Evaluation." APA, San Francisco, CA, August 29, 1977.

Hansen, L. S. "BORN FREE: Reducing Career-Related Sex-Role Stereotyping - Staff Development and Change Process." APA, San Francisco, CA, August 29, 1977.

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*Numerous other workshops were held and speeches presented for local, state, and national conferences, organizations, and institutions.

Hansen, L. S. "An Applied Developmental Intervention to Reduce Career-Related Sex-Role Stereotyping in Elementary, Secondary, and Higher Education Settings." Paper presented as part of a symposium on "Educational Intervention to Promote Female Development--A Life Span View." APA, San Francisco, CA, August 27, 1977.

Hansen, L. S. "BORN FREE: Change Process Evaluation of a Psycho-educational Intervention to Reduce Career Sex-Role Stereotyping for Women and Men." Paper presented as part of a Symposium on "Cross-Cultural Sex Differences" at the American Educational Research Association Annual Convention, Toronto, Canada, March 30, 1978.

C. Project Information

The following brochures, summaries, and newsletters have been created to provide descriptive information about the project and the materials for those interested in issues of sex equity for both women and men.

Mills-Novoa, B., & Hansen, L. S. Project Abstract, March, 1978.

Mills-Novoa, B., & Staff. BORN FREE News. Bi-monthly newsletter to promote communication among BORN FREE institutions. The initial 14 schools and institutions of higher education participating in the project are Lincoln Elementary, Sunrise Junior High, and Mariner High School in White Bear Lake, MN; Webster Elementary, Mounds Park Junior High, and Washington High School in St. Paul, MN; Harley Hopkins Elementary, North Junior High, and Eisenhower High School in Hopkins, MN; Lakewood Community College in White Bear Lake, MN; Normandale Community College in Bloomington, MN; Special Intermediate School District #916 in White Bear Lake, MN; College of Liberal Arts Career Planning Office (University of Minnesota) in Minneapolis, MN; and Augsburg College, Minneapolis, MN. The newsletter has been expanded to include the 107 participants in the 1978 National Institute as well as others around the nation concerned about sex bias in career options.

Hansen, L. S. BORN FREE Products and Publications. A listing and brief description of all the modules and reports produced by Project BORN FREE in the first two years of its existence.

Boe, D. Project Logo. The yellow and orange project logo, an original design, has been distributed as a public relations tool to arouse interest in BORN FREE and create awareness of the problems the project addresses.

Dege, D. Videotape Abstracts. A one-page description of each of the nine BORN FREE videotapes.

Kragseth, P. Videotape Overview. A brief description of the developmental themes and content of each of the nine BORN FREE videotapes.

VI. DISSEMINATION

Materials will be reviewed for dissemination by the Education Development Center, 55 Chapel Street, Newton, Massachusetts 02160, (617) 969-7100 or 1-800-225-3088. EDC is the official WEEA project dissemination contractor.

Because of USOE dissemination restrictions, the length of our packets and reports, and budget limitations, we are unable to engage in general dissemination. However, selected conference papers and reports are available (while supply lasts) for cost of reproduction and mailing.

For copies of abstract, information papers, or sample of training materials, or to be put on newsletter mailing list for BORN FREE Network, contact:

L. Sunny Hansen, Professor and Director
Project BORN FREE
139 Burton Hall, 178 Pillsbury Drive SE
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, MN 55455
(612) 373-0202 or 373-5558

For dissemination information, contact:

Dissemination Center for Women's
Educational Equity Act Program
Education Development Center
55 Chapel Street
Newton, MA 02160
(617) 969-7100 or 1-800-225-3088

B. SELECTED RESOURCES: SECONDARY LEVEL

Printed Materials

Sex Roles

Bostick, N., Kaspar, P., and Sallan, N. How to deal with sex-role stereotyping: At a school board meeting, in a workshop, in the classroom. Cupertino, California: Choice for Tomorrow, 1976.

Specific suggestions for dealing with sex stereotyping in a variety of situations. The suggestions for classroom activities to be used with both girls and boys are particularly good.

Council on Interracial Books for Children and the Foundation for Change. Sexism and racism in popular basal readers 1964-1976. New York: Racism and Sexism Resource Center, 1976.

An analysis of the roles and stereotypes of females, males, and racial minorities in five series of readers.

Emma Willard Task Force on Education. Sexism in education. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Box No. 14229, 1973.

Good information and tools for use in the classroom and for inservice training sessions.

Ernest, J. Math and sex. Santa Barbara, California: University of California, 1976.

Focuses on the way sex-role stereotyping directs girls and women out of mathematical areas and the implications of this trend.

Frazier, N., and Sadker, M. Sexism in school and society. New York: Harper and Row, 1973.

Excellent analysis regarding issues related to sex bias in schools. Includes brief bibliography of related materials.

Gersoni-Stavn, D. (Ed.) Sexism and youth. New York: R.R. Bowker Co., 1974.

Anthology of works about sex-role stereotyping: socialization, school influences, media, toys, games. Excellent collection.

Guttentag, M., and Bray, H. Undoing sex stereotypes. New York: McGraw Hill, 1976.

Very effective combination of a literature review and classroom exercises.

Johnson, L.O. (Ed.) Non-sexist curricular materials for elementary schools. Old Westbury, New York: The Feminist Press, 1974.

A valuable aid for elementary school teachers who are concerned with sexism in the classroom.

McGraw Hill Book Company. Guidelines for equal treatment of the sexes in McGraw Hill Book Company publications. New York: McGraw Hill, 1976.

Guidelines and rules for avoiding sex bias in curriculum materials and other publications.

Merriam, E. *Boys and girls, girls and boys*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1972.

An excellent book on both sexism and racism. All of the children are shown doing and thinking about things without regard to race or sex stereotypes. Illustrations are good, showing white, Black, and Asian children.

National Education Association. *Education for survival*. Washington, D.C.: Office of Education (HEW), 1973. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 09984.)

A report that summarizes one year's activities of examining stereotypes in elementary and secondary education. The most outstanding protions deal with sex-role socialization, teacher behaviors that facilitate and perpetuate sexism, and effects of media on stereotyping.

National Organization for Women. *Materials for sex equality education for use by teachers, parents, and young people*. Champaign, Illinois: Greater Champaign Area Chapter, 1974. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 099894)

Provides materials and strategies to raise awareness of sexism of parents and teachers. Questionnaires, teaching activities, lesson plans, and classroom materials are included.

Ross, P. *Young and female*. New York: Random House, 1972.

Eight first-person accounts of American women who have had to overcome the limited role assigned to women.

Rothchild, N. *Sexism in the schools: A handbook for action*. Mahtomedi, Minnesota, 1973. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 090108)

Deals with sex bias in educational systems, athletics, children's books, classrooms, and with the impact of stereotyping on children. Particularly helpful in assisting parents and other community people to understand their school system.

Sprung, B. *Non-sexist education for young children: A practical guide*. New York: Citation Press, 1975.

Good resource for nonsexist classroom materials.

Stacey, J., Bereaud, S., and Daniels, J. (Eds.) *And Jill came tumbling after: Sexism in American education*. New York: Dell, 1974.

Comprehensive essays on how school processes encourage sex bias and foster sex-role stereotyping.

Wangen, W., and Wagner, S. *Choices: Learning about changing sex roles*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Jenny Publishing Company, Inc., 1977.

This is a kit that comes in two levels, primary and intermediate elementary grades. Excellent collection of classroom activities on sex roles--highly recommended! Users' guide and posters are included.

Women on Words and Images. *Dick and Jane as victims: Sex stereotyping in children's readers*. Princeton, New Jersey: Women on Words and Images, 1975.

Analysis of elementary school readers for aspects of sex-role stereotyping.

Career Education

Council on Interracial Books for Children and the Foundation for Change. Racism in career education materials: How to detect it and how to counteract its effects in the classroom. New York: Racism and Sexism Resource Center, 1975.

Guide to deal with biased career education materials.

Egan, J. Resource book of low-cost materials for career education. Palo Alto, California: American Institutes for Research in the Behavioral Sciences, 1974. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 101212)

Excellent annotated bibliography of materials, children's literature, and sex-role stereotyping related to career education.

Ryan, C., and Young, J. Influencers on the career development of elementary school children. Augusta, Maine: Maine State Department of Educational and Cultural Services, 1973. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 11196)

The effects of reading materials on the career awareness of elementary school children.

Sex Roles and Career Education

Vetter, L., Lowry, C., and Burkhardt, C. Sugar and spice is not the answer; A parent handbook on the career implications of sex stereotyping. Columbus, Ohio: The Center for Vocational Education, 1977.

Excellent handbook for parents on their role in sex stereotyping and career directions for their children. Good resource listings.

Audio-Visual Materials

Sex Roles

Oakland Unified School District and the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development (Producer). Changing images: Confronting career stereotypes and Women emerging: Comparing cultural expectations. Washington, D.C.: Office of Education, 1972.

Changing images: Confronting career stereotypes is a 15-minute, 16mm, black and white film that illustrates the concept of the process of changing sex-role stereotypes in a fourth grade class in an Oakland school.
Women emerging: Comparing cultural expectations is a 27-minute, 16mm, black and white film that depicts the development, over a four-month period, of a multi-ethnic women's studies class in a Berkeley experimental public high school. A handbook comes with these films.

Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching and Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development (Producer). Hey, what about us?, I is for important, and Anything they want to be. Washington, D.C.: Office of Education, 1972.

These films illustrate behavioral instances of sex-role stereotyping in physical, social, emotional, and intellectual activities in schools, between teachers and students, and among students. They are accompanied by a handbook.

Career Education

Agency for Instructional Television (Producer). Bread and butterflies: A curriculum guide in career development. Bloomington, Indiana, 1974.

Fifteen films on career development (with an awareness of sex-role stereotyping) for 9- to 12-year-olds, combined with teachers' curriculum guide. A student guide and workbook, My bread and butterflies career book, also has been published.

Scholastic Book Service. Explore. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1976.

An excellent career education resource for grades four, five, and six. The package contains three units, each with four filmstrips, a teaching guide, and student logbooks.

Teaching Resources Films. You can be anything. Mount Kisco, New York, 1975.

A very good career education package for primary level. It has four filmstrips, four tapes, and a teaching manual.

Sex Roles and Career Education

Randour, M.L. Rationale for the TV career awareness project. Paper presented at the American Psychological Association Annual Meeting in San Fransisco, August 1977; and Television Career Awareness Project-TVCAP (Producer). Freestyle. Career Awareness Division of the Education and Work Group at the National Institute of Education.

A series of 26 films for elementary children (9-12 years old) designed to promote sex-fair career development in children. They have identified nine instructional objectives which provided the framework for development: (1) Androgynous Behavior, (2) Nontraditional Activities, (3) Limitations of Stereotyping, (4) Risk Taking, (5) Cinderella Myth, (6) Leadership Roles for Females, (7) Luck, (8) Independence, Initiation, and (9) Nurturing Males.

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(Article from Interracial Books for Children Bulletin, 1978)

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INTRODUCTION

What follows is a sampling of the kinds of information available which is very useful as background material for doing BORN FREE training programs. Persons planning to be involved in such programs would find the material published by the Women's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Labor extremely valuable. A list of their publications can be obtained by writing them. Also very useful is the newsletter (On Campus with Women) and other materials available free from the Project on the Status and Education of Women.

Project BORN FREE also recommends that, where possible, workshop leaders try to obtain data that is broken down by race, class, and sex so that one can see more clearly the positions of these respective groups. For example, a chart that gives the income of only women and men would obscure the fact that women of minority racial groups are on the bottom of such charts.

Attention should also be paid to the fact that different sources use different definitions and data analysis in arriving at conclusions. For example, a chart listing median income of women and men will be different from one listing mean or average income, as will one that includes full-time workers and part-time workers vs. a chart that covers only full-time workers.

A. Life Expectancy

While life expectancy for both women and men in the U. S. has increased substantially in this century, the increase has been greater for women. The average female born in the U. S. in 1973 will live 7.7 years longer than the average male.

-- Taken from Minnesota Women: A Profile, 1977, p. 1.

Assuming that the 1973 death rates do not change in the future, 80% of female children will live to the age of 65 as compared with only 65% for male children. (But at age 65, life expectancy is 13 years for men and 17 years for women.)

-- Taken from "Facts About Older Americans 1975," U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Female-male ratios: In 1973 for people 65 and older in the U. S., the ratio of women to men was 143-100. In the year 2000, it is expected to be 154-100.

-- Taken from "Facts About Older Americans 1974," U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Minority infant mortality is twice that of white.
Minorities live five years less than whites.

-- Taken from "What Are the Results of Racism?" 1977

B. Marital Status of Older Americans

(These are 1974 figures.)

Older men: 79% are married
Older women: 52% are widows
(more than five times as many widows as widowers)

Distribution:

	Men	Women
Married	78.9%	38.7%
Widowed	14.4	52.4
Divorced	2.2	2.6
Never married	4.6	6.3

-- Taken from "Facts About Older Americans" (n.d.)

C. Legal Rights Based on Age

Age discrimination in the United States is illegal in employment for persons 40-65. (For further details, contact U. S. Department of Labor, Wages and Hour Division, Washington, D. C. 20210.)

On the state level, there are 36 states with age discrimination laws.

In Minnesota, for Minnesota residents 62 or older, legislation passed in 1975 enables them to take classes at any public post-secondary educational institution in the State when space is available after all tuition-paying students have been accommodated. To take classes for credit, an administration fee of $2.00 per credit has to be paid.

-- Source Unknown

D. U. S. Population

Minorities Undercounted:

The New York Times reported on April 25, 1973, that the 1970 census missed 1.9% of whites and 7.7% of Blacks; the undercount for Black children was 8.6%. The U. S. Commission on Civil Rights in April of 1974 stated that persons of Spanish speaking background were undercounted by appreciably more than 7.7%.

The following were the figures reported by the Bureau of the Census for U.S. Population, 1970:

177,749,000	Whites
22,580,000	Blacks
5,023,000	Mexicans
2,483,000	Other Spanish origin
1,450,000	Puerto Ricans (mainland)
793,000	Native Americans
591,000	Japanese
435,000	Chinese
343,000	Filipino

-- Taken from "Did the U. S. Census Undercount Minorities?" 1975

Distribution by Age and Sex (1900-1975):

Table 1

Percent Distribution of the Population by Age and Sex: 1900 to 1975

(Resident population as of July 1 for 1975
and as of April 1 for other years)

Sex and year	All ages	Under 15 years	15 to 24 years	25 to 44 years	45 to 64 years	65 years and over
WOMEN						
1975.........	100.0%	24.0%	18.2%	24.9%	20.8%	12.1%
1970.........	100.0	27.2	17.2	23.5	20.9	11.2
1960.........	100.0	30.1	13.3	26.3	20.3	10.0
1950.........	100.0	26.2	14.8	30.4	20.2	8.5
1940.........	100.0	24.8	18.4	30.5	19.4	7.0
1930.........	100.0*	29.4	18.7	29.5	16.9	5.4
1920.........	100.0*	32.1	18.3	29.4	15.3	4.7
1910.........	100.0*	32.7	20.2	28.6	14.0	4.4
1900.........	100.0*	34.8	20.2	27.4	13.3	4.1
MEN						
1975.........	100.0	26.4	19.4	25.3	20.1	8.8
1970.........	100.0	29.8	17.7	23.7	20.2	8.5
1960.........	100.0	32.1	13.5	26.0	20.0	8.5
1950.........	100.0	27.5	14.6	29.7	20.4	7.7
1940.........	100.0	25.3	18.0	29.8	20.2	6.7
1930.........	100.0*	29.4	17.9	29.4	18.0	5.3
1920.........	100.0*	31.5	17.1	29.7	16.9	4.6
1910.........	100.0*	31.5	19.2	29.7	15.1	4.2
1900.........	100.0*	33.9	19.0	28.7	14.1	4.0

*Includes persons with age not reported, not shown separately.

-- Taken from A Statistical Portrait of Women in the U.S., 1976

E. Poverty

Persons in Poverty:

Females who were low income outnumbered males by more than four million in 1975. The 15 million females living in poverty accounted for three out of five persons (58 percent) who were low income in the U. S.

Although the poverty rate of women exceeded that of men in virtually every age group, the greatest differential occurred among those persons 65 years and over. There were 2.3 million low income women and about 1 million low income men in this age group (see tables which follow):

Table 2: Persons Living in Poverty, by Sex and Age, 1976

Age	Number (in thousands)		Poverty rate	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Total, 16 years and over	10,034	5,736	12.2%	7.7%
16 to 21 years	1,785	1,341	14.4	11.1
22 to 44 years	3,640	2,098	10.7	6.4
45 to 54 years	1,071	617	8.9	5.5
55 to 59 years	590	342	10.4	6.7
60 to 64 years	622	350	12.6	8.0
65 years and over	2,326	988	17.9	10.8

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 107. September 1977. (Advance Report)

-- Taken from Women with Low Incomes, November 1977, pp. 1-2.

Families in Poverty:

The number of low income families in the United States was 5.3 million in 1976. Of the 56.7 million families in the United States in 1976, women headed 7.7 million. Although women were only 14 percent of all family heads, they made up 48 percent of all low income family heads. Further, Black women, who accounted for 4 percent of all family heads, were 21 percent of all those with low incomes. Spanish-origin women headed 1 percent of all families but were 5 percent of all low-income family heads.

About one-third of all families headed by women were low income--more than five times the 5.6 percent rate for male-head families. About 1 out of 4 (25 percent) families were headed by a white woman but 2 out of 4 (50%) of those headed by Black women were low income.

-- Taken from Women with Low Incomes, November 1977, p. 6.

Change in Poverty Status of U. S. Families 1960-1974:

Between 1960 and 1974 in the United States, there was a substantial decrease in the number of male-headed and husband-wife families in poverty. At the same time, there have been increases in the number of female-headed families in poverty, particularly among those with dependent children:

Male-headed and husband-wife:	-56%
Male-headed and husband-wife with dependent children:	-55%
Female-headed:	+20%
Female-headed with dependent children:	+46%

-- Taken from Newsletter (#13), 1978, p. 4.

F. Disabled People in the U. S.: Facts and Figures

See article on the next seven pages, pp. FP 6-12.

-- Taken from Interracial Books for Children Bulletin, 1978.

DISABLED PEOPLE IN THE U.S.: FACTS AND FIGURES[1]

How many disabled people are there in the U.S.?

Not until the 1970 Census was there any attempt to identify the numbers of disabled persons in the U.S. That survey was seriously limited in that the questions asked dealt solely with whether or not a person had a health or physical condition which affected his or her "ability to work." The 1970 Census showed a total adult population of 121 million in the typically accepted employable age-range of sixteen to sixty-four years. Of this total, there were just under 11.3 million persons with disabilities which had existed for six months or longer. The census, therefore, concluded that one in every 11 people in the U.S.--over 9 per cent of the population--has a disability.

These figures, however, do not reveal the total number of disabled persons. Many disabled persons *do* work; hence, their condition is not an impediment to employment. These people were not counted. The figure was low for another reason. Because of the stigma society attaches to disability, many disabled people did not *identify* themselves as disabled. Finally, the 1970 Census did not include disabled people under sixteen and over sixty-four or those in institutions.

The American Coalition of Citizens with Disabilities estimates that 36 million people in the U.S.--one in six--have physical and/or developmental disabilities. A figure close to this one is predicted for the 1980 Census, which will be based on a considerably expanded definition of disabilities.

What statistics are available on specific types of disabilities?

11.7 million (or more) physically disabled people (including 1/2 million who use wheelchairs; 3 million who use crutches, canes, braces or walkers; plus mobility-impaired elderly, amputees and those people with illnesses such as chronic arthritis, severe cardiovascular disorders and cerebral palsy);

12.5 million temporarily injured (broken limbs, injuries to back or spine, severe burns);

2.4 million deaf;

11 million hearing impaired;

1.3 million blind;

8.2 million visually impaired;

6.8 million developmentally disabled (retarded, severely emotionally disturbed, brain damaged, severe learning disabilities);

1.7 million homebound (due to chronic health disorders or degenerative diseases like multiple sclerosis); and

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[1] From: Interracial Books for Children Bulletin, 8 (6&7), 1978, 20-21.

2.1 million institutionalized (mentally retarded, developmentally disabled, terminally ill). This figure includes an unknown number of persons who are disabled and forced into institutions for economic reasons alone. Many people with severe cerebral palsy, for example, could be leading independent lives in the community if they had money--income from the government or from a job.

Some persons fall into more than one of the above categories.

How many disabilities are due to injuries received on the job?

Disabling work injuries in the U.S. totalled approximately 2.5 million in 1973, about 90,000 of these resulting in permanent disability. This can be largely attributed to unsafe working conditions.

COMPARATIVE INCOME OF EMPLOYED DISABLED PEOPLE

For every dollar earned by a non-disabled white male in 1969, disabled people made the following:

White male	$ .60
White woman	(not available)
Black male	.25
Black woman	.12 (less than)

Figures are only for the age range 45-54, one of the higher income-producing age brackets. Source: "Employment Problems of Disabled Persons," *Monthly Labor Review*, March, 1977.

How many were disabled by the Vietnam war?

Some 490,000 veterans were disabled by the Vietnam war.

What are the income differences between the disabled and non-disabled?

The annual earnings of disabled workers are approximately 70 per cent those of non-disabled workers, according to the U.S. Department of Labor. A household with a disabled adult must make do with a third less income than other households (this does not take into account the extra expenses that may be incurred by a disability). Of disabled people, 36 per cent live in poverty[2] as opposed to 20 per cent of the general population. The proportion of disabled people at the lowest poverty level--15 per cent--was almost twice that of the general population--8 per cent--in 1973.

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2. The federal government's definition of poverty is considered by many to be absurdly and unrealistically low.

How many disabled people are unemployed?

In a society where people's marketability depends largely on physical appearance, disabled persons--particularly women--are often excluded from the job market. The U.S. Department of Labor estimates that 58 per cent of disabled people are unemployed. A New York City advocacy organization estimates that 64 per cent of those disabled New Yorkers who have a skill and *can* work are unemployed. In California, an estimated 3.5 million disabled people between the ages of sixteen and sixty-four are job ready but cannot find work. Only about one in ten of the people trained in so-called "special workshops for the handicapped" finds work after training. A recent study shows that only 21 per cent of disabled young adults are employed or at college. The remaining 79 per cent of disabled young adults are underemployed, unemployed or institutionalized.

What barriers do disabled persons face?

If a person becomes disabled, expenses go up while income goes down (maximum welfare benefits are frequently as low as $168 a month). Equipment when needed--wheelchairs, braille typewriters, hearing aids, etc.--is exorbitantly priced. Some disabled people require "health care providers" or "homemakers," attendants who must be paid. And in order to have mobility, disabled people may need specially equipped cars or vans--another exorbitant expense--since "public" transportation is often inaccessible. Disabled people who are employed can spend double or triple the carfare of non-disabled people to get to work. Lack of interpreters and communication devices effectively exclude blind and deaf people from attending meetings, movies or other events and make such crucial requisites as going to a hospital extremely difficult.

Disabled people are stared at and harassed. They are frequently mugged or raped. They are also ignored. They are demeaningly referred to as "cripple," "handicapped," "deformed," "abnormal," etc. They are seen as retarded, overly sensitive, easily hurt, weak, shy, non-sexual or sexually perverse. As pointed out in the article "Media Portrayals of Disabled People" societal attitudes do not reflect the reality of disabled people's capabilities. "Our bodies make us disabled, but society makes us handicapped," said one individual at a New York State hearing that preceded the 1977 White House Conference on Handicapped Individuals.

In the past two years, thousands of complaints about job discrimination have been filed by disabled persons. Yet out of every ten complaints filed with the Federal Office of Contract Compliance, only two were acted upon.

What barriers confront school-age children?

Although children with disabilities represent over ten per cent of the school age population in the U.S., many have been excluded from public schools because of societal attitudes or accessibility problems, not because they were unable to learn. These children have been forced into isolation in their homes or in institutions. Where they have been admitted to public schools, many children have been relegated to segregated programs "out of sight" of the regular student body. Nationwide, only 50 per cent of 7 million disabled children are receiving an education which is at all adequate to meeting their needs, according to the New York State Council on Handicapped Individuals. The same council also states that only about 25 per cent of disabled pre-school children are enrolled in appropriate programs.

What are some of the preventable causes of disabilities?

While a disability can happen to anyone, the most frequent victims of disability are working class people, most particularly Third World people and females--that is, people who already face massive discrimination. Third World people are especially likely to suffer disabling accidents because they are forced to work at unsafe jobs with insufficient or no union protection and do not have enough money for adequate health care, diet, car maintenance and other needs. Children born into these population categories are more likely to have disabilities due to maternal malnourishment, the effects of job-related toxins on workers and maternal ingestion of unsafe drugs during pregnancy. (Childhood malnourishment, which is a result of poverty, can also cause disabilities.)

ABOUT "MAINSTREAMING"

Note: The new federal legislation (PL 94142) does *not* mandate the mainstreaming of disabled students into regular classes. This law does state that no student can be denied a free public education regardless of the severity of the disability, and that this education must be provided in the "least restrictive environment." The least restrictive environment must be determined for each disabled child and does *not* necessarily mean placement in the regular classroom.

How is discrimination against disabled people related to discrimination against women, minorities and older people?

Disabled people are victims of economic and racial oppression, and their low status in the U.S., as compared with the status of non-disabled white males, is the result of a society that places a higher priority on material than on human values.

Disabled people--like racial minorities, women and older people--receive unequal treatment in the job market, in inadequate facilities and services for health care, and in the stereotyped and biased presentation they face in books and other media. Of all people, the most oppressed economically are disabled Third World women (see chart, page 20).

What, if any, protection exists for disabled persons?

Until four years ago, no federal law specifically prohibited discrimination against disabled persons. Under pressure from 800 disability rights groups, and after a much publicized sit-in by disabled people at the Lincoln Memorial, Congress passed the Rehabilitation Act of 1973. Section 504 prohibits any federally funded institution from excluding disabled persons from programs or facilities on the basis of their disability. However, the regulations to implement the new law were not signed until April 28, 1977--and then only after nationwide protest demonstrations.

What do disability rights groups want?

In recent years, an aggressive civil rights movement has been initiated by disabled persons. In their efforts to achieve equality, disabled people have been sitting-in, picketing, filing law suits and lobbying for the equal protection promised them but never received under the 14th Amendment.

SOURCES

One in Eleven, Handicapped Adults in America, The President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, Washington, D.C.

"The Handicapped, A Minority Demanding Its Rights," *New York Times*, Feb. 13, 1977. Includes statistics provided by the National Arts and the Handicapped Information Service and the National Center for Health Statistics.

"Handicapped No Longer [illegible] Like It," *New York Times*, Oct. 2, 1977.

D.I.A. Speaks, published by Disabled in Action, May, 1977.

The Coalition, Vol. 1, No. 2, Fall, 1977, published by the American Coalition of Citizens with Disabilities, Washington, D.C.

"Employment Problems of Disabled Persons," *Monthly Labor Review*, March, 1977.

G. Labor Force

Changes in Participation Rate of Women (1950-1976):

Table 3: Women in the labor force, annual averages for selected years, 1950-1976

(Numbers in thousands)

Year	Labor force		
	Total, both sexes	Women	
		Number	Percent of total
1950	62,208	18,389	29.6%
1955	65,023	20,584	31.6
1960	69,628	23,240	33.4
1965	74,455	26,200	35.2
1970	82,715	31,520	38.1
1975	92,613	36,998	39.9
1976	94,773	38,414	40.5

-- Taken from U. S. Working Women: A Databook, p. 5.

Age Changes of Women in Labor Force:

In 1975, 46 percent of all women 16 years of age and over were in the labor force, considerably higher than the 34 percent rate which prevailed 25 years earlier. The greatest gains in labor force rates since 1950 have been registered among women 20 to 54 years of age (see table which follows):

Table 4: Women Workers in 1950 and 1975

(Numbers in thousands)

Age	1975		1950	
	Number	Percent of population	Number	Percent of population
16 years and over	36,998	46.3%	18,389	33.9%
16 and 17 years	1,652	40.2	611	30.1
18 to 64 years	34,313	54.3	17,195	37.2
18 and 19 years	2,387	58.1	1,101	51.3
20 to 24 years	6,069	64.1	2,675	46.0
25 to 34 years	8,456	54.6	4,092	34.0
35 to 44 years	6,492	55.8	4,161	39.1
45 to 54 years	6,666	54.6	3,327	37.9
55 to 64 years	4,244	41.0	1,839	27.0
65 years and over	1,033	8.3	584	9.7

-- Taken from Women Workers Today, 1976, p. 2.

Mothers in Labor Force:

The number of mothers in the labor force has increased more then threefold since 1950. There were 14.1 million mothers in the labor force in March 1975, an increase of 4.5 million in the last decade. The changes are graphically displayed in the following table which shows, for example, for mothers with children under 6 years old a change from 13.6% in 1950 to 38.9% in 1975.

Table 5: Labor Force Participation Rates of Mothers, Selected Years, 1950-1975

Year	Mothers with children		
	Under 18 years	6 to 17 years	Under 6 years*
1950	21.6%	32.8%	13.6%
1955	27.0	38.4	18.2
1965	35.0	45.7	25.3
1975	47.4	54.8	38.9

*May also have older children.

Note: For 1950 and 1955, data are for April; for 1965 and 1975, data are for March.

-- Taken from Women Workers Today, 1976, pp. 3-4.

Minority mothers, like their white counterparts, have sharply increased their labor force participation in recent years. The greatest increase for both minority and white mothers has been among women with children under six years of age.

The participation rates for minority mothers have always been considerably higher than those for white mothers. Their increase in the last five years has not been so marked as their white counterparts, but their participation rate is still higher (58.1 percent vs. 47.5 percent) as the following chart indicates.

Table 6: Percentage of Mothers in the Labor Force, by Race, Age of Children, and Marital Status of Mother, March 1976

Age of children	All never married	Married (husband present)	Other marital status*
		Minority	
Total	58.1%	58.3%	57.7%
6 to 17 years	62.4	63.8	60.3
Under 6 years	53.3	53.2	53.8
		White	
Total	47.5	44.8	66.0
6 to 17 years	55.4	52.7	70.9
Under 6 years	37.7	35.5	57.2

*Widowed, divorced, or separated.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, unpublished data.

--Taken from Minority Women Workers: A Statistical Overview, 1977 (revised), p. 9.

Labor-Force Status of Family Members:
(For husband-wife families)

In March 1975, families where the husband and some other member were in the labor force constituted about half of the 46 million husband-wife families in the United States. Only about 38 percent of all husband-wife families had just one worker, as the following chart indicates.

Wife only in labor force:	3%
Husband only in labor force:	34%
Husband and wife in labor force:	41%
Husband and other in labor force:	8%
More than one family member in labor force, excluding husband:	1%
None in labor force:	12%
Other family member in labor force:	1%

-- Taken from Hayghe, "Families and the Rise of Working Wives," 1976, p. 16.

Yearly Income by Age and Sex (1960, 1970, 1974):

Table 7: Median Income of Year-Round Full-Time Civilian Workers 14 Years Old and Over with Income by Age and Sex: 1960, 1970, 1974

(Numbers in thousands. Medians in current dollars. Age as of March of the following year.)

Age and sex	1974		1970		1960	
	Number	Median income	Number	Median income	Number*	Median income
WOMEN						
Total with income ...	18,017	$6,957	15,518	$5,440	10,337	$3,296
14 to 19 years	467	3,875	335	3,783	311	2,450
20 to 24 years	2,704	5,849	2,224	4,928	1,223	3,155
25 to 34 years	4,411	7,604	2,899	5,923	1,795	3,549
35 to 44 years	3,410	7,418	3,081	5,531	2,553	3,404
45 to 54 years	3,943	7,359	3,865	5,588	2,581	3,296
55 to 64 years	2,716	7,044	2,690	5,468	1,541	3,275
65 years and over	365	6,085	423	4,884	283	2,838
MEN						
Total with income ...	38,915	$12,152	36,146	$9,184	32,165	$5,435
14 to 19 years	696	4,492	419	3,950	321	1,974
20 to 24 years	3,567	7,709	2,700	6,655	1,973	3,916
25 to 34 years	10,492	12,037	8,763	9,126	7,790	5,450
35 to 44 years	8,617	13,586	8,649	10,258	8,868	5,907
45 to 54 years	8,758	13,641	8,756	9,931	7,452	5,678
55 to 64 years	5,776	12,454	5,757	9,071	4,730	5,079
65 years and over	1,009	8,670	1,102	6,754	1,156	4,115
RATIO: WOMEN/MEN						
Total with income ...	0.46	0.57	0.43	0.59	0.32	0.61
14 to 19 years	0.67	0.86	0.80	0.96	0.97	1.24
20 to 24 years	0.76	0.76	0.82	0.74	0.62	0.81
25 to 34 years	0.42	0.63	0.33	0.65	0.23	0.65
35 to 44 years	0.40	0.55	0.36	0.54	0.29	0.58
45 to 54 years	0.45	0.54	0.44	0.56	0.35	0.58
55 to 64 years	0.47	0.57	0.47	0.60	0.33	0.64
65 years and over	0.36	0.70	0.38	0.72	0.24	0.69

*Numbers were derived by multiplying total number of persons with income by the percent of year-round full-time workers with income; figures, therefore, are less exact than comparable ones for 1974 and 1970.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-60, Nos. 99, 80, and 37.

-- Taken from A Statistical Portrait of Women in the United States, 1976, p. 47.

Weekly Earnings by Sex (1967-1976):

Table 8: Median usual weekly earning of full-time wage and salary workers by sex, 1967-1976

Year	Usual weekly earnings				Women's earnings as percent of men's
	In current dollars		In 1967 dollars		
	Women	Men	Women	Men	
May of:					
1967	$78	$125	$78	$125	62%
1969	86	142	79	130	61
1970	94	151	81	131	62
1971	100	162	83	134	62
1972	106	168	85	135	63
1973	116	188	88	143	62
1974	124	204	85	140	61
1975	137	221	86	138	62
1976	145	234	86	138	62

-- from U. S. Working Women: A Databook, p. 34

Earnings by Occupation and Sex (1974):

This chart is reproduced on the following page, FP 16.

Employed Persons by Sex and Occupation (1974):

This chart is reproduced on p. FP 17, and shows that women are concentrated in fewer occupational categories than men. One should note that though 15% of women are in the "professional and technical" category, this category includes the occupation of "teacher."

Earnings by Race and Sex (1964, 1974):

This chart is reproduced on p. FP 18, and is intended to show the effects of double discrimination--race and sex--by which minority women end up in the lowest income bracket.

Economic Need of Women in the Labor Force (1975):

This chart is reproduced on p. FP 19. It is intended to show that most women are working out of economic necessity, not just for self-fulfillment. It demonstrates that 68% of women in the labor force never married; are widowed, divorced, or separated; or are married with husband present who earns less than $10,000 per year.

This chart is intended to combat the argument that women shouldn't be working because they don't need it. One should note, however, that this argument has not been applied to men.

Table 9: Total Money Earnings of Civilian Year-Round Full-Time Workers, by Occupation Group and Sex, 1974

(Persons 14 years of age and over)

Occupation group	Women	Men	Dollar gap	Women's earnings as a percent of men's	Percent men's earnings exceeded women's
Total	$6,772	$11,835	$5,063	57.2%	74.8%
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	9,570	14,873	5,303	64.3	55.4
Managers and administrators	8,603	15,425	6,822	55.8	79.3
Sales workers, total	5,168	12,523	7,355	41.3	142.3
Retail trade	4,734	9,125	4,391	51.9	92.8
Other sales workers	8,452	13,983	5,531	60.4	65.4
Clerical workers	6,827	11,514	4,687	59.3	68.7
Craft and kindred workers	6,492	12,028	5,536	54.0	85.3
Operatives (including transport)	5,766	10,176	4,410	56.7	76.5
Service workers (except private household)	5,046	8,638	3,592	58.4	71.2
Farmers and farm managers	*	5,459	--	--	--
Farm laborers and supervisors	*	5,097	--	--	--
Nonfarm laborers	5,891	8,145	2,254	72.3	38.3
Private household workers	2,676	*	--	--	--

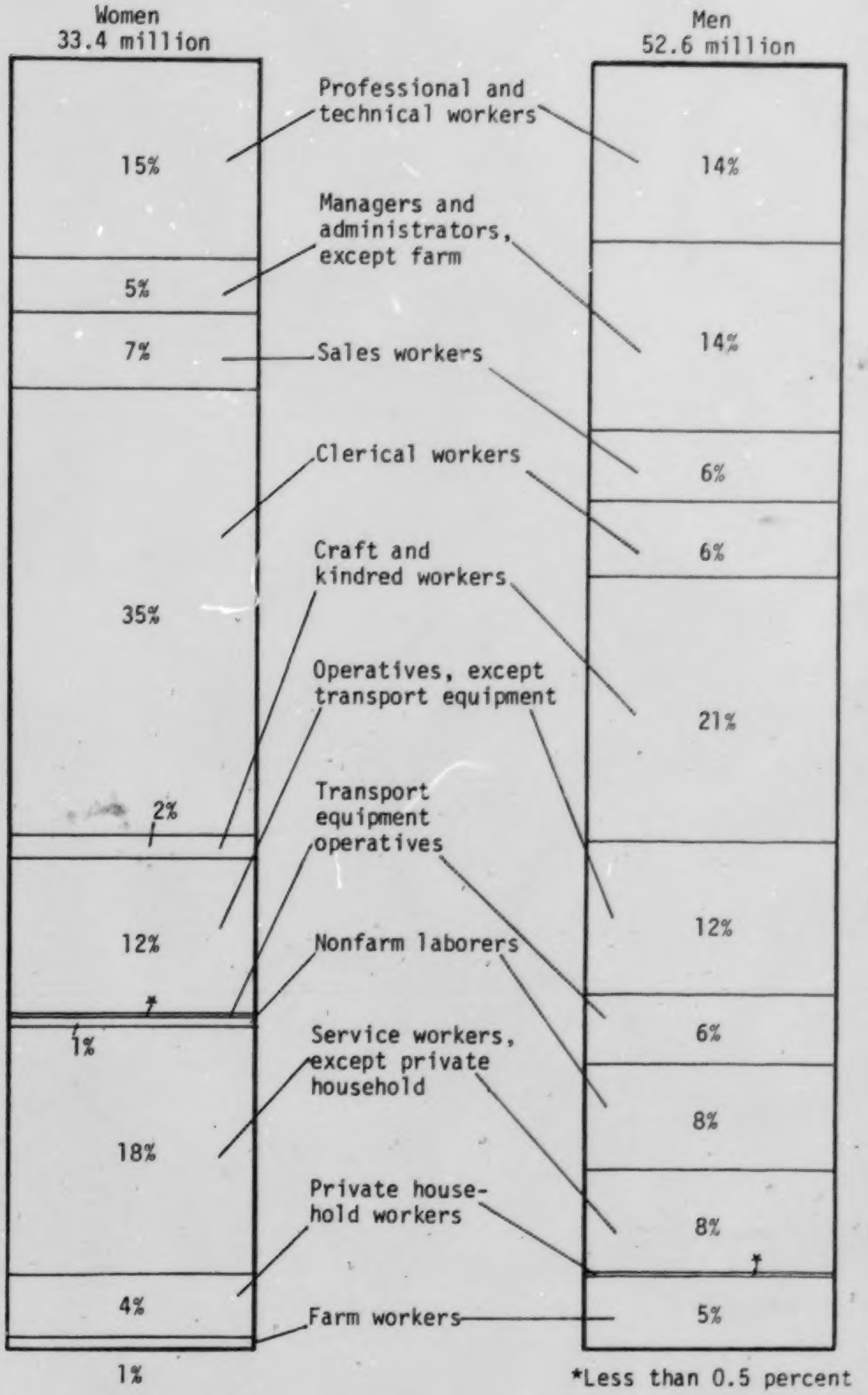
* Base less than 75,000.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 101.

-- The Earnings Gap between Women and Men, 1976, p. 8

Table 10:
Employed
Persons by
Sex and
Occupation,
1974

(annual averages)



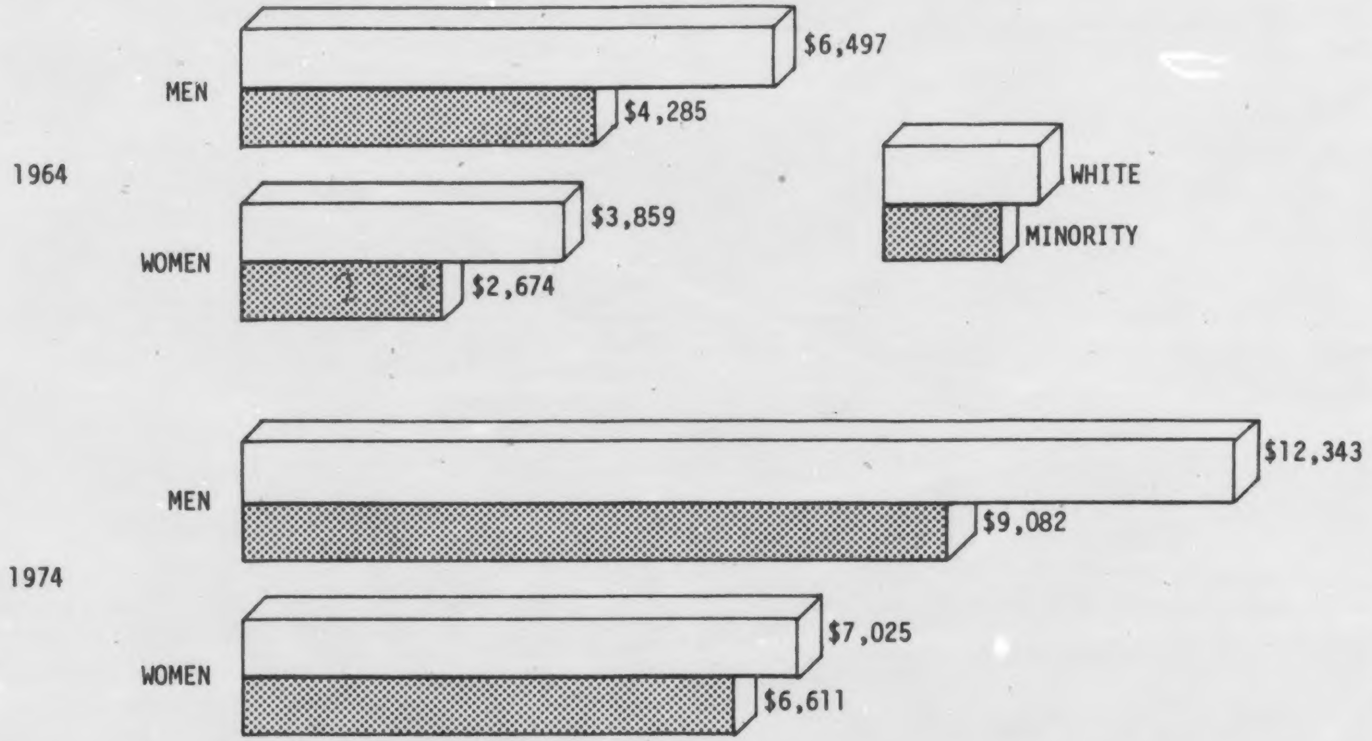
*Less than 0.5 percent

This chart taken from U. S. Working Women: A Chartbook (Bulletin 1880), 1975

Women are concentrated in fewer occupational categories than men.

Table 11: Earnings by Race and Sex (1964, 1974)

Fully Employed Women Continue To Earn Less Than Fully Employed Men of Either White or Minority* Races



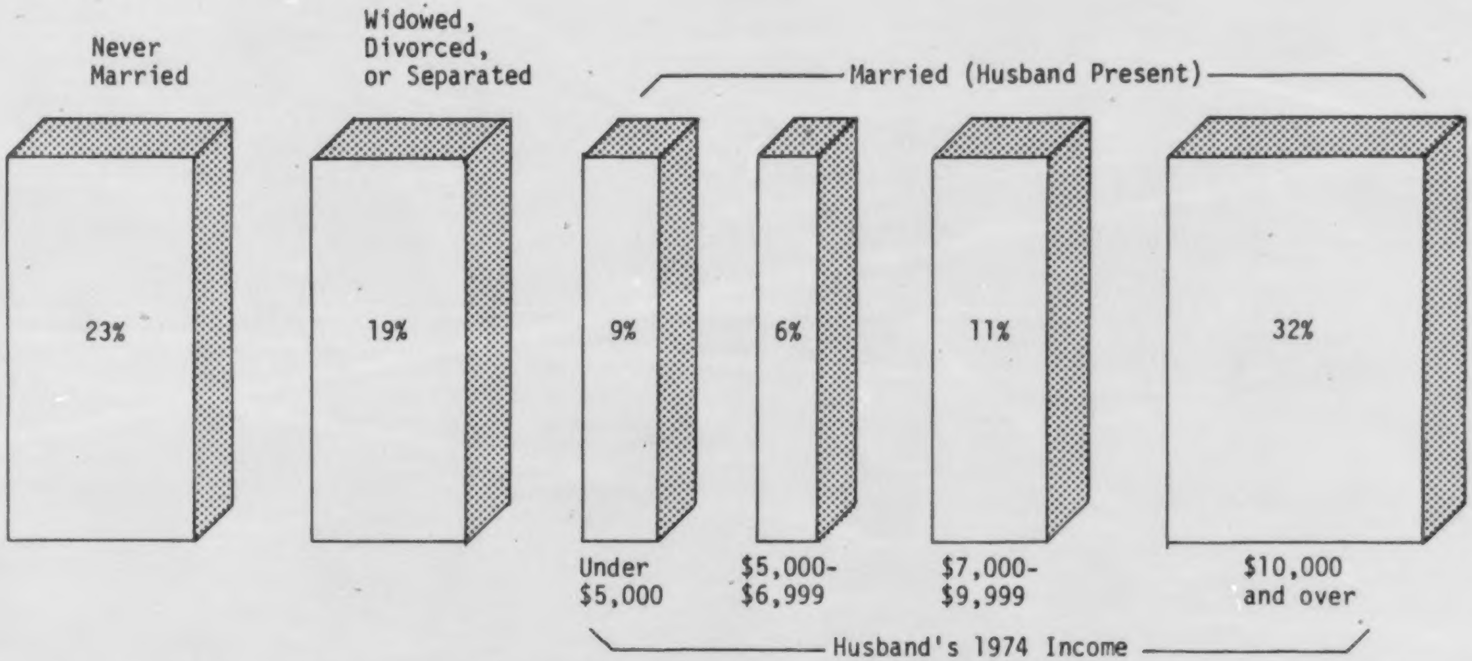
*Includes all races other than white.

Source: Prepared by the Women's Bureau, Employment Standards Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, from data published by the Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce.

-- This chart received from Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor

Table 12: Economic Need of Women in the Labor Force (1975)

Most Women Work Because of Economic Need
(Women In The Labor Force, By Marital Status, March 1975)



Source: Prepared by the Women's Bureau, Employment Standards Administration, from data published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

-- This publication received from Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor

H. "Enlarging the American Dream"

Following on the next fifteen pages is an article, "Enlarging the American Dream," by Donna Hart.

The article appears in its entirety because of its information and analysis concerning the status of minority women.

The article is originally from American Education, May 1977, Vol. 13, No. 4.

ENLARGING THE AMERICAN DREAM[1]

by Donna Hart[2]

Traditionally, American society has been willing to accept culturally different peoples if they in turn were willing to reject their cultural distinctiveness. Assimilation, until the late 1960s, was accepted by almost everyone, educators and large segments of most ethnic communities prominently included. During the past decade, however, an emerging sense of heritage that is being more and more proudly expressed by racial minority and national origin groups is changing all this.

The past definition of education's function--to remodel citizens for conformity to a single homogeneous model of acceptable behavior and beliefs--is being challenged. Many Americans now contend that democratic education should have cultural pluralism as a goal. They argue that the rich cultural mix in America--the different values, customs, traditions, and religions--can expand everyone's horizons as it affects all aspects of life, including sex-role attitudes and issues of concern in education.

This article presents an overview of the impact of the women's movement on cultural norms and heritage and the cultural differences and educational experiences of five minority groups--Puerto Rican, Chicano, Black, Asian, and Native American. Though these five groups by no means represent all minority women, they do indicate the needs of a major segment of minority women as they differ from the needs of Anglo women.

BLACK WOMEN

Black women, victims of double discrimination because of their race and sex, are often asked to make a choice with regard to their priorities: "Are you black first, or female first?" The plain fact is that they are both and have no way to separate the two. Many black women believe that the effort to *force* a separation of the two, especially as that relates to establishment of society priorities, has worked to the detriment of both the racial movement and the women's movement. The black woman is the victim of both racism and sexism, and therefore represents a potentially powerful unifying force around issues for both movements.

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[1] From: American Education, May 1977, Vol. 13, No. 4.

[2] Ms. Hart is on the faculty of the School of Education, George Washington University. The following reviewed drafts of the issue paper from which this article was taken: Cecilia Preciado-Burciaga, assistant for Chicano Affairs, Stanford; Francelia Gleaves, Project on Status and Education of Women, Association of American Colleges; Edith Thomas Harvey, director of Equal Education, Nebraska Department of Education; Pat Locke and Paquito Vivo, directors of Ethnic Studies, Western Interstate Commission of Higher Education; Jeanie Myerson and Beverly Orr, staff writers, National Project on Women's Education.

In a piece included in *Voices of the New Feminism*, writer Pauli Murray says, "Because black women have an equal stake in women's liberation and black liberation, they are key figures at the juncture of these two movements. White women feminists are their natural allies in both cases. Their own liberation is linked with the issues that are stirring women today: adequate income maintenance and the elimination of poverty, repeal or reform of abortion laws, a national system of child-care centers, extension of labor standards to workers now excluded, cash maternity benefits as part of a system of social insurance, and the removal of all sex barriers to educational and employment opportunities at all levels. Black women have a special stake in the revolt against the treatment of women primarily as sex objects, for their own history has left them with the scars of the most brutal and degrading aspects of sexual exploitation."

The notion that the black female enjoys a favored economic position in relation to the male is a myth. The belief that black women have always been "liberated," and therefore do not need to be involved in a movement to liberate women, is also a myth. The media-produced stereotype of the women's movement as a middle-class white woman's struggle to escape from housework and child rearing, to get out of her home and into the job market ignores the black woman who may have been a family breadwinner but who lacked the opportunity to make free choices concerning her life.

Historically, these "breadwinner" jobs have been the result of the economic structure's need for cheap labor. Because of an economic necessity of earning a living to help support the family and a need for the black community to draw heavily upon the resources of all its members in order to survive, black women have taken jobs that few others would accept; thereby they unwittingly aided in creating the myth of the female's dominance in the black family. This illustrates how racism has affected the relationships between black males and females. As black men develop access to the economic power structure, black women for the first time have wife or worker options that many white women have had for a long time.

Diane Slaughter of the University of Chicago, in examining the different adaptive strategies black women have arrived at, suggests, "The strongest conception of womanhood that exists among all pre-adult females is that of the woman who has to take a strong role in the family. They [the pre-adult females] accepted the situation as part of life and tradition in the black community. It is against this backdrop that the symbol of the resourceful woman becomes an influential model in their lives."

As a result of her research, Afro-American sociologist Joyce Ladner sees three primary agents of socialization for the pre-adolescent black female: 1) the immediate and extended family; 2) the peer group; and 3) negative community influences such as exposure to rape, poverty, violence, and the like. The strong personality that results from exposure to the harshness of life enhances the girl's chances for survival and her adequate functioning within society. To "survive," the black woman must "make it" as a mother and a worker.

Consequently, over the years, education has been one of the black movement's priorities. The black woman's aspirations toward education are associated with an emphasis on career possibilities that are seen as making possible or easing the maintenance of the black family.

Despite the faith of black women in the education system as a means for social and economic advancement, equal education has not assured them equal access to opportunity. Black women with degrees equivalent to those held by men and white women have been unable to obtain equivalent jobs. The gap between the salaries of black men and women has widened. Both black and white women with some college education earn less than a black male who has only eight years of education.

Although the black woman has made great strides in recent years in closing the educational gap, she still suffers from inadequate education and training. In 1974, approximately 75 percent of black women had completed high school compared with 85 percent of white women. Although there was a 56 percent increase in college enrollment of blacks between 1970 and 1974, only 16 percent of black women were enrolled in college at the end of that period. A college degree is attained by only 7.6 percent of black women.

Since 1970, little evidence exists of any advance in the relative earnings of black females. A look at the jobs in the top five percent of the earnings distribution shows that black females held none of them in 1960 and essentially none in 1973. Black women earn less than white women (a median income of $2,810), are employed in greater numbers (about 60 percent between the ages of 20 and 54), and hold a greater percentage of low-paying, low-status jobs (54 percent are employed as operatives or service workers). In 1975, 35 percent of black families were headed by women who earned a median income of only $4,465. That there is still a large number of black women in the labor force reflects to a considerable degree their continuing obligation to supply a substantial proportion of family income. It also suggests that educational attainments, no matter how small, raise participation rates more for black than for white women.

The quandary of black women is how best to distribute their energies among the multiple barriers of poverty, race, and sex, and what strategies to pursue to minimize conflicting interests and objectives.

More and more, young black women are starting to think about their futures as black women in the United States. They are not accepting societal interpretations of their roles. In the process of thinking things through they are being realistic about the roles that they will embrace. Black women will still have to work, but they want to work at jobs that are more challenging and that more fully use their strengths and talents. They want quality education and training to develop their abilities and interests. They want education that respects cultural differences and that educates for liberation and survival.

PUERTO RICAN WOMEN

In immigrating to the states, Puerto Ricans differ in one main respect from most other minorities who preceded them: They come as American citizens. Nevertheless, numerous problems--differences in customs, racial inequalities, and a limited knowledge of English among them--have restricted their social, economic, and educational success.

Many Puerto Ricans report that the family, which is very important in traditional Puerto Rican culture, experiences a tremendous shock when it is transplanted from Puerto Rico to the mainland. No role in the Puerto Rican American family has been more challenged by immigration than that of the father. In traditional Puerto Rican culture the man is the undisputed head of the household. Meanwhile, the "good woman" obeys her husband and stays at home, working long hours while caring for the children. But whether head of household or "good woman," the individual subordinates his or her wants and needs to those of the family.

On the U.S. mainland, where women have more prominence and stature, these traditional Puerto Rican roles are undercut. Puerto Rican women are not shielded from mainland differences. Economic need often projects them into the labor force where they are confronted by the greater expectation of women's roles. Then, too, the school and community teach Puerto Rican children that they should have more freedom, be more aggressive and independent, and should speak English rather than Spanish. These influences change the traditional roles within the family, causing strains, role conflicts, and identity confusion.

The Puerto Rican woman often drops out of school at an early age to enter the labor force (at the lowest level) in the hope that her wages will help her family out of a life of poverty. When she is able to find a job, she faces serious disadvantages, not least among them her lack of knowledge of English and the lack of bilingual programs in her community. Adequate training is another lack that keeps a decent salary out of reach, a situation that further compounds her housing, health, and other problems.

Of no assistance to her plight are discriminating hiring practices that have Puerto Rican women working for a lower wage than Puerto Rican men despite equal pay legislation. Many of the available opportunities have been so-called "women's jobs," which are economically and politically powerless and amount to nothing more than low-paid unskilled drudgery.

Supporting this glum picture of Puerto Rican women in America are the 1975 U.S. Census figures that show 1.7 million Puerto Ricans in the United States, 906,000 of them female, of whom only 154,000 have jobs. More than half of Puerto Rican women participating in the labor force are operative or service workers, and 68 percent of those working earned incomes below $5,000. The most recent data indicate that 31 percent of Puerto Rican households in the United States are headed by women who earn a median income of $3,889.

Puerto Rican women in America complete an average of 9.5 years of school. Only 25 percent of them attain a high-school education and a mere three percent are college graduates. Their educational attainments, like their employment, are hampered by their imperfect grasp of English and their identity confusion, which is often exacerbated by mainland prejudice and their own sense of being strangers in a foreign country. Of significant concern to Puerto Rican women is how much the lack of access to "mainstream" education influences their social and economic situations.

Puerto Rican women in the United States are still struggling with racial as well as sexual discrimination in housing, education, and hiring. They find the women's movement defined by Anglo-American standards and often oblivious to the special needs and strengths of minority women. They feel that the movement has tended to ignore and obscure the racist issue, resulting in double discrimination for minority women.

Puerto Rican women will not separate themselves from their cultural heritage or be alienated from their men. They strongly support the qualities of womanhood, strong family ties, and respect for the family as an institution. They will accept a movement that confronts sexism, but not one that divides the sexes. If the movement appeals to the issue of basic human rights, to the values inherent in the freedom of both sexes from sexism, and to the proposition that when a woman has freedom of choice this also frees the man--if this, in fact, is the meaning of the women's movement, then many Puerto Rican women will support it.

MEXICAN-AMERICAN WOMEN

Mexican-Americans constitute the second largest minority in the United States today, and more than 90 percent of them are city dwellers. Vilma Martinez, a young Chicana (feminine form of Chicano) lawyer, has speculated that "in 15 or 20 years the Hispanic population will surpass the black population. Our citizens must be awakened to the ramifications of this fact: Hispanos are a nationally significant, and not a regional, group."

Historically, the Chicano family has been patriarchal and authoritarian. Economic, social, and political leadership in Chicano communities traditionally has been male-based. Education, sexual liberties, and material comforts have been for the men, with the women taking a subordinate, supportive role within the family. The Chicana was controlled by her parents until she married and then had to be faithful to her husband and children.

Chicanos often place a greater emphasis on the family as a unit than on its individual members. Parents stress the use of Spanish as their children's primary language, insisting that to give up Spanish would be to say that one's ancestors accounted for nothing and that one's culture had made no impression on the history of the Southwest. The feeling prevails that the family nucleus would disintegrate if the children could not speak in Spanish to their grandparents.

Chicana leaders see three distinct choices open to Mexican-American women: The Chicana can adopt the traditional sex role, imitating the rural Mexican woman whose place is in the home; she can choose a dual role in which she is bilingual and begins to move away from traditional religious and family sex-role images; or she can cut her cultural ties and identify with the "liberated" middle-class white woman.

This diversity of role models for women within the Chicana community requires special consideration by education policy-makers. Chicanas themselves express the need for having specific role models which they can follow at all education levels--elementary, secondary, community college, and higher education. And they're talking about teachers and administrators, not just Chicanas in school cafeterias. Many of them are looking beyond community-college training as secretaries or as cosmetologists.

Educational and vocational training opportunities must, therefore, be made more accessible and relevant to Chicanas' lives. The deficiencies in our educational system as it relates to Chicanas are underscored in that Chicanas complete an average of only nine years of school. One-fourth of them have completed less than five years of school, 23 percent have completed high school, and only 2.2 percent of those 25 years of age and older are college graduates.

These low figures do not translate the zeal with which Chicanas seek education despite the many obstacles. One formidable barrier is hydra-headed discrimination because of race, color, national origin, language, and sex-role socialization. Then there are damaging or inadequate counseling, ill-prepared and unmotivated teachers, culturally biased achievement tests, inequality of school finances, tracking into noncollege preparatory courses, economic deprivation, and a lack of role models.

Parents of Chicanas recognize the value of education as a tool for survival in a complex society. They encourage their daughters to pursue education, and there is a sense of family pride about a daughter's attendance at college. But parents also want Chicanas to remember their traditional family values and roles. Thus under pressure to succeed as both student and Chicana within a strange, impersonal, and often inflexible college environment, the young woman becomes vulnerable--and little wonder--to the despair and frustration that account for the high dropout rate of Mexican-American women.

Nor can the economic realities that often preclude interest in and access to educational attainment be overlooked. The annual income of Chicanas in 1974 demonstrates a cycle of poverty, with 76 percent of them earning less than $5,000. In terms of earning power as compared to all other Spanish-origin women, the Chicana is at the bottom, earning a median annual income of $2,682. It must also be noted that Chicanas are increasingly in the labor force because of economic need and responsibility as heads of households; 14 percent of Chicano families are supported by Chicanas, and one-half of these are below the poverty level.

Chicanas have tended to be suspicious of the woman's movement, which came about just as the minority movement was gaining momentum. Hostility toward white women who have moved into the forefront with their "sexual politics" results from the Chicanas feeling that class interests have been obscured by the issue of sex, which is easier to substantiate and to deal with than are the complexities of race.

Chicanas, along with many other minority women, question whether or not white women in power positions will perform any differently than their white male predecessors. Will white women work for humanity's benefit? Will they use their power to give entry skills and opportunities to minorities? Chicanas have seen little evidence of white women addressing these broader needs or exhibiting an understanding of the minority-wide issue of redistribution of income levels.

Bea Vasquez Robinson of the National Chicana Coalition succinctly states the minority women's position vis-à-vis the women's movement: "To expect a Chicana who has felt the degradation of racism to embrace a movement that is once more dominated by whites is childish." And in another instance, "We will join forces to the extent that you white women are willing to fight, not for token jobs or frills, but rather go to the roots of our common oppression and struggle for economic equality."

The Chicanas' prime concerns are economic survival and the continuance of their culture. Their issues are broader than sexism; theirs are racism and cultural pluralism as well.

AMERICAN INDIAN WOMEN

In any discussion of American Indian women, it is necessary to keep in mind the diversity among the 789 tribal entities existing today. Writing for the *HUD Challenge*, social scientist Regina Holyan says, "Some tribes allow and encourage prominent authoritative behavior on the part of their women, while other tribes such as the Navajo and Cherokee prefer that their women not act conspicuously in decision-making roles. These conflicting expectations by different tribes place Indian women in sensitive situations when they must interact with members of other tribes."

Nonetheless, like the Chicanas, American Indian women may choose among three separate subcultural roles: the traditionalist, stressing adherence to the tribal religion and cultural patterns; the moderate that retains elements of the traditional Indian heritage and customs while adjusting to the dominant white societal patterns; and the progressive, which replaces the traditional culture with the modern white beliefs and values. Educators need to be aware of these different role choices and to avoid influencing Indian students to choose a role based on the expectations of whites.

Among the cultural values basic to many tribes is an emphasis on living for today--in harmony with nature, with no time consciousness, with a concern for giving, not accumulating, a respect for age, and a desire for sharing and cooperating. These values are often in direct opposition to those stressed by the dominant culture's educational program. The white way of life is future oriented, time conscious, and competitive. It places great importance on youth, the conquest of nature, and long-term saving.

For over a century the federal government, largely through the Bureau of Indian Affairs, has assumed the responsibility for educating Native Americans to the standards of the general population. Because the Indians must live in the white man's world, their sense of survival tells them that education is the way to success, even though they may not agree with many of the practices of the schools their children attend.

Despite the availability of free schooling, only 6.2 percent of Indian females and 5.8 percent of Indian males in the Southwest have completed eight years of school. Data from the 1970 Census, however, indicated that women in the total American Indian population complete a median of 10.5 years of school with just over a third (34.6 percent) graduating from high school. Although female Indians attain more years of formal education than do males, they have been shown to be dramatically less acculturated than Indian males.

Census data also show that only 50 percent of American Indian women report English as their mother tongue. This means that English is a second language for half of the Indian women. Educational policy-makers--especially at the elementary level--must be aware of the high incidence of English language deficiencies among Indian females and plan programs accordingly.

There is a real need for American Indians to participate in formulating education policy for reinforcement of the distinct tribal belief systems and value systems. Indians look upon self-determination as a necessity, especially in view of tribal diversity and the different learning styles that exist among the tribes. Yet Indian women often perceive federal programs and the women's movement as sidestepping their particular wants and strengths and threatening family unit because these programs encourage them to seek their own self-satisfying goals. This is to say that though Indians will not dispute that education is necessary for survival, they dislike the specific methods because they disrupt their culture and often have the effect of channeling Indian women into domestic jobs and other low-paying positions.

Preservation of the family with the nurturing of children within the family structure is the prime goal of Indian-made policy. Should the Indians feel a federal program to be in conflict with this policy, they can choose not to take part in it. That decision, however, is not without serious consequence: Not to participate can result in an effective block to progressive self-help by closing off economic and educational opportunities. Lack of education also prevents the American Indian from working from within the education and political systems where weighty issues must be dealt with: How, for instance, is access to educational funding on both federal and state levels gained by Indian tribes individually? Who controls and uses the funding once it is gained? How can self-determination be enacted within existing guidelines for receiving educational funding?

Thus the Indian student has two life styles to learn. On the one hand, the ways of the white, predominant culture must be learned as a

POSSIBLE STRATEGIES TO MEET THE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS AND STRENGTHS OF MINORITY WOMEN

FEDERAL EDUCATION AGENCIES AND FOUNDATIONS

- Conduct and encourage research into the problems and concerns shared by minority women in the area of education.
- Organize on national or regional levels a clearinghouse for information exchange on minority women and relevant resource personnel, materials, and programs.

STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

- Interpret Title IX with a sensitivity to multiculturism, recognizing the double jeopardy of sex and race.
- Include multicultural female representatives in planning and developing programs for minority women and girls.
- Encourage and provide equal employment opportunities for hiring minority women in administrative and decision-making positions.
- Retrain educators, counselors, and administrators to sensitize them to the special needs and concerns of minority female students.
- Require teacher-training and certification programs to include intense self-evaluation sensitivity to multiculturism.

LOCAL EDUCATION AGENCIES

- Include minority women and community members on the board of directors or trustees.
- Encourage minority women to prepare for career advancement and provide adequate training opportunities.

EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS (PRESCHOOL THROUGH COLLEGE)

- Recruit minority women into administrative, faculty, and student ranks.
- Provide special stipends and allowances for minority female students from low-income families.
- Adopt day-care, tutorial, and counseling services to enable minority women to partake of educational opportunities.

(cont.)

- Initiate special placement efforts for minority female graduates.
- Expand and enrich adult-education opportunities so that parents and children are exposed to acculturation at a more closely related pace.
- Encourage and preserve bilingualism.
- Emphasize in school and college curriculums the literature, music, art, dance, games, and sports of minority cultures.
- Make effective use of community resources and develop incentives for community participation.
- Evaluate regularly and systematically school programs that involve minorities.

survival skill, though Indian women caution against these ways being permitted to "vitiate" or influence tribal style. On the other hand, the Indian life content, which now is learned only through the home, must be learned simultaneously as standards and values. The Indian woman must be effective in both areas and aware of the appropriate responses expected of her in different situations.

Employment and job opportunities for Indian women are, naturally, affected by the level and quality of their educational background. More Indian women than any other group (86 percent) earn less than $5,000 per year. Thirty-five percent of Indian women participated in the labor force in 1970, and as a group they earned a median annual income of $1,697. Seventy percent were in the powerless and vulnerable position of clerks, operatives, and domestic service workers. Although there were two wage earners in almost half the Indian households in 1969, their median family income was a mere $3,300. American Indians, the smallest and poorest of all America's ethnic groups, "stand in a class by themselves when it comes to suffering economic deprivation," according to economist Lester Thurow.

For the most part, Indian women believe that working toward the improvement of the status of Indians as a people is where their efforts should be directed and not solely toward their status as Indian women. As a Winnebago woman put it, "We Indian women do not feel oppressed in the Indian world. We are more concerned with the problems of racial discrimination." An Isleta Pueblo woman observes that Indian women have a concept of equal rights that is different from that of the women's movement; they believe that acquiring equal rights does not necessarily mean that Indian women want to attain equal leverage in tribal matters. And Minerva White, a Seneca, recently said, "We have had women's liberation for five thousand years; we have been liberated for five thousand years, and so that is not an issue for us."

Because Indians do not make the same kinds of sex-role distinctions whites make, and because Indian women, especially those of matrilineal tribes, influence tribal economic decisions and are in decision-making positions, these women are not generally sympathetic to the women's movement. They accept the reality of social changes occurring, but ask little beyond a voice and some control over the directions of the changes that are profoundly affecting the lives within their tribe.

ASIAN-AMERICAN WOMEN

Asian-Americans, like American Indians, are a highly diversified ethnic group. The Asian-American population includes Koreans, Indians, Pakistani, Vietnamese, Indonesians, Thais, Malaysians, and a wide representation of Pacific peoples such as Samoans, Guamanians, and native Hawaiians. Americans of Chinese, Japanese, and Filipino origins are also included, and because more detailed research and description are available for them, they will, for the purpose of this discussion, represent all Asian-Americans.

Asians today constitute less than one percent of the population in the United States, although the importance of their presence in this country, past and present, far outweighs their numbers. From a background of "unskilled" labor and objects of discrimination, Asian-Americans have reached comparatively high levels of educational and occupational achievement. Chinese and Japanese, the most prominent of the Asian-descended groups in America, are often pointed out as the "successful" minority groups.

The first Census data of 1910 showed that 78 percent of the Japanese in this country were male, as were 89 percent of the Filipinos and 90 percent of the Chinese. Because recent immigration has almost consistently introduced more females than males into each of the Asian-American communities, the sex ratios have changed considerably. The Japanese and Korean populations are now predominantly female, partly a reflection of the number of war brides brought back by returning servicemen. The Chinese and Filipinos continue to be predominantly male.

A comparison of the labor-force status of women shows that a larger percentage of Asian-American women (50 percent) work outside the home than do black (48 percent) or white women (41 percent). A little over 55 percent of Filipino women and 42 percent of Korean women work; whereas Japanese and Chinese women occupy an intermediate position with 49 percent taking jobs, according to 1970 Census data. All in all the proportion of Asian-American females gainfully employed is higher than the national average, and this does not take into account the unpaid women in family-operated businesses, since many of these women do not classify themselves as "employed."

Although many Asian-American women are highly educated, having attended or completed college, they are nevertheless concentrated in the positions of bookkeepers, secretaries, typists, file clerks, and the like. "They are qualified for better jobs," says Betty Lee Sung of the Department of Asian Studies at City College of the City University of New York, "but are the victims of sexism more than racism."

Levels of unemployment of Japanese-American and Chinese-American women are generally low, even slightly lower than those for whites. In 1970, for example, the unemployment rate was only 3.7 percent for Chinese women. The problem is not in getting a job, but rather in the kind of job and the salary it pays. Many recent Chinese immigrants, fresh off the plane, can walk into one of the small garment factories scattered throughout any Chinatown or its peripheral area and start working the next day. They work by the piece and their hours are fairly flexible. Piece work at low rates is always available.

The presence of very young children has not limited the level of occupational achievement for young working Asian women. Chinese mothers show higher levels of occupational achievement than childless, never-married Chinese women. This is true also for Filipino women, although to a lesser extent than for the Chinese. This situation may represent a cultural carry-over from the traditional Asian pattern in which middle-class Asian mothers are inclined to be employed. By Asian custom, older children help to take care of younger ones, thereby relieving mothers of these family duties during the day. Hence, the Asian "day-care" program is conducted within the home and family.

Chinese-American women are marrying later and limiting their families probably because they are spending more years in school. In 1970, the median years of schooling for each Asian-American group was slightly above the white attainment of 12.1 years. Today, differences in years of completed schooling among Asians and whites of both sexes have virtually disappeared.

Census data for 1970 indicate that 23 percent of Filipino and 58 percent of Chinese-American women between 18 and 24 years of age are in college. About three-fourths of all Japanese-Americans finish high school. Figures like these indicate that many families have shed the centuries-old belief that females are spoiled for wifehood and motherhood if they acquire some education. It is generally the foreign-born female who is the most deprived and, hence, the most handicapped. Her occupational sphere is, therefore, extremely circumscribed and limited to the most simple and menial jobs.

Many Americans are unaware that more Chinese-Americans are born abroad than are born in the United States. The foreign-born ratio will probably become greater as immigration exceeds native births. In essence, the Chinese-American population is largely a first-generation or immigrant-generation population. The tremendous adjustment that first-generation Chinese-Americans must make puts them at a disadvantage in every respect. They must re-educate themselves completely and quickly.

Most Americans assume that Asian-Americans have no social problems, an assumption which restricts the access of Asian-Americans to funds available to minority groups. As a result they have been forced to form self-help organizations in their own communities, an action leading to the misconception that Asians "take care of their own."

One segment of the Asian population most in need of help are those who cannot speak, read, or write English. Illiteracy is generally a problem with those over 45, especially the women. The younger generations are highly educated and bilingual, regardless of sex. However, in the 1970 Census, only four percent of the Chinese living in New York listed English as their mother tongue. In California, 12 percent and in Hawaii, 44 percent did so. That the Chinese have clung to their language more tenaciously than most other national groups is commendable and could provide a national resource of bilingual people.

Another problem Asian-Americans often encounter is the American cultural values that are in conflict with many traditional Asian values. For example, many Asian cultures have emphasized strict loyalty to the family, which trains children to avoid controversial, potentially embarrassing situations. Strict self-control and discipline were mandatory. As a result, Asians, especially women, often have appeared to be reserved, self-conscious, and reticent, finding continuity, permanence, and personal security in the close relations of the family. In contrast, dominant American culture now comprises a majority of single, nuclear families with few multigenerational living arrangements.

Another example would be American competitiveness based on "each for himself," a notion alien to most Asians. However, in the process of acculturation and upward mobility, many Asians have adopted the more expressive and assertive style of the dominant culture. Betty Lee Sung asserts that the tendency is becoming increasingly prevalent for Asian-Americans to believe that, in order to adjust to living in the United States, one must embrace the American way in toto and cast off the Asian heritage completely. She also believes that great psychological damage will result for these Asian-Americans. Instead, she holds, Asian-American women and men should strive for a culturally pluralistic society in which they can preserve their heritages while contributing to American social, civic, and educational life.

Like many foreign women, Asian-American women have been neatly categorized by stereotype milled in white imaginations. Asian women are often described as being docile, submissive, and sexless. Or they may be exotic, sexy, and diabolical. They are often presented as objects or commodities rather than as persons with ideas, aspirations, talents, and feelings.

A situation familiar to many Asian women comes as a consequence of recent immigration. Since the end of World War II, more than 500,000 women of foreign nationality have entered the United States as spouses of Americans. Over one-third of these women were from Asian countries. Professor Bok-Lim Kim of the University of Illinois has found that many of these women experience a host of adjustment problems. Reports of severe physical abuse and deprivation are not uncommon. In one study made at Washington State, Professor Kim noted that divorce or separation among Asian wives of military men resulted in over 20 percent of those in the study becoming female heads of households. (This figure is in contrast to the six percent of Chinese-American and eight percent of Filipino-American female heads of households.) These Asian wives are often unable to seek help because of their isolation, lack of proficiency in English, unfamiliarity with the life style, and fear of outside contacts.

Young Asian-American women, especially those who are third generation, are feeling a void and are expressing a need and desire to rediscover their ethnicity. These women are more liberated and more assertive. They are challenging the monocultural ideal of the majority society to acknowledge, analyze, and incorporate Asian-American women and men at all social, political, educational, and economical levels. Fundamental changes in the American educational process toward a goal of cultural pluralism is a realistic response to their peculiar needs and strengths.

Minority women by and large are concerned with how Anglo society--its educational institutions in particular--has attempted to divorce them from their cultural heritage and alienate them from their men. They want to share the belief that the only route to fulfillment of the American Dream is by perseverance and education. Yet the present educational system often militates against such goals for minorities and especially females.

Many minority women are high-school dropouts. Consequently they look to secondary-school programs to be made more relevant and available to them. In like vein higher education, a recent alternative for many minority women, needs to be demystified. College role models in their immediate families are still rarely found because most minority women in college today are the first in their families to be there. Setting this kind of precedent puts pressure on the young women, brought on by expectations from both their families and themselves. Those who make it through four years of college soon become painfully aware that the job benefits which should follow are often limited. Many college-educated minority women are unable to get white-collar jobs at a professional level.

The fact is that minority women frequently explain their problems in economic terms. The kinds of jobs open to them is a smarting issue to these women. Of 36 million women in the labor force, 4.7 million are minorities, constituting more than 40 percent of all minority workers. Discriminatory hiring practices based on racist and sexist factors still prevail and are just further complicated when minority women have educational attainments, the more educated often finding themselves underemployed and underpaid. It is often the case that both white and minority women with some college education earn less than minority men with less than a high-school education.

Generally, however, the more education a woman has the more likely she is to be in the skilled or professional labor force. New job opportunities in expanding occupations and additional schooling are almost certain to place more minority women in the labor force.

Statistics indicate that most minority women workers are high-school graduates. March, 1974, figures showed 61 percent had graduated from high school, including ten percent who had completed four or more years of college. The comparable figures for white women were 75 and 14 percent, respectively. Because minority women complete a median 12.3 years of schooling, the educational system must plan and implement instruction that will meet their special needs during these 12 years.

One purpose of the educational system is to equip all learners with satisfying and rewarding competencies for entering the world of work in the field of one's choice. The curriculum and instruction used in preparing the professionals who will work with minority girls and women must reflect the heritage, needs, and concerns of the various minorities. Cultural pluralism, a relatively new idea in education, addresses the cultural differences of minority women and informs majority men and women about this diversity. This pluralistic concept is the hope that ethnic women have in getting others to understand, promote, and respect differences in cultural patterns and learning styles that are so widespread in America--and, not incidentally, in advancing themselves in the dominant-culture.

I. Education--National Offices

U. S. Office of Education by Sex and Grade, (1974):

Table 13

Grade	Total	No. of Women	Percent Women
01	8	5	63%
02	63	47	75
03	148	125	84
04	184	153	83
05	219	190	87
06	227	214	94
07	263	202	77
08	66	57	86
09	150	116	77
10	5	3	60
11	164	107	65
12	181	91	50
13	373	92	25
14	420	72	17
15	248	23	9
16	27	2	7
17	10	2	20
18	4	0	0
Total	2,760	1,501	54%

National Institute of Education Staff by Grade and Sex,(1974):

Table 14

Grade	Total	No. of Women	Percent Women
01	0	0	--
02	2	2	100
03	6	4	67
04	10	10	100
05	29	25	86
06	33	33	100
07	48	39	81
08	7	7	100
09	32	22	69
10	0	0	--
11	25	16	64
12	29	17	59
13	49	18	37
14	52	10	19
15	27	2	7
16	0	0	--
17	0	0	--
18	0	0	--
Total	349	205	59%

-- The preceding two charts from Pottker and Fishel, Sex Bias in the Schools: The Research Evidence, 1977, pp. 506-507.

Table 15: National Education Association (NEA) Leadership by Positon and Sex, 1973

Position	Total	No. of Women	Percent Women
Executive Management	3	1	33.3
Top Management	11	0	0
Other Managerial Positions	70	10	14.3
Executive Committee	10	3	30
Board of Directors	100	24	24

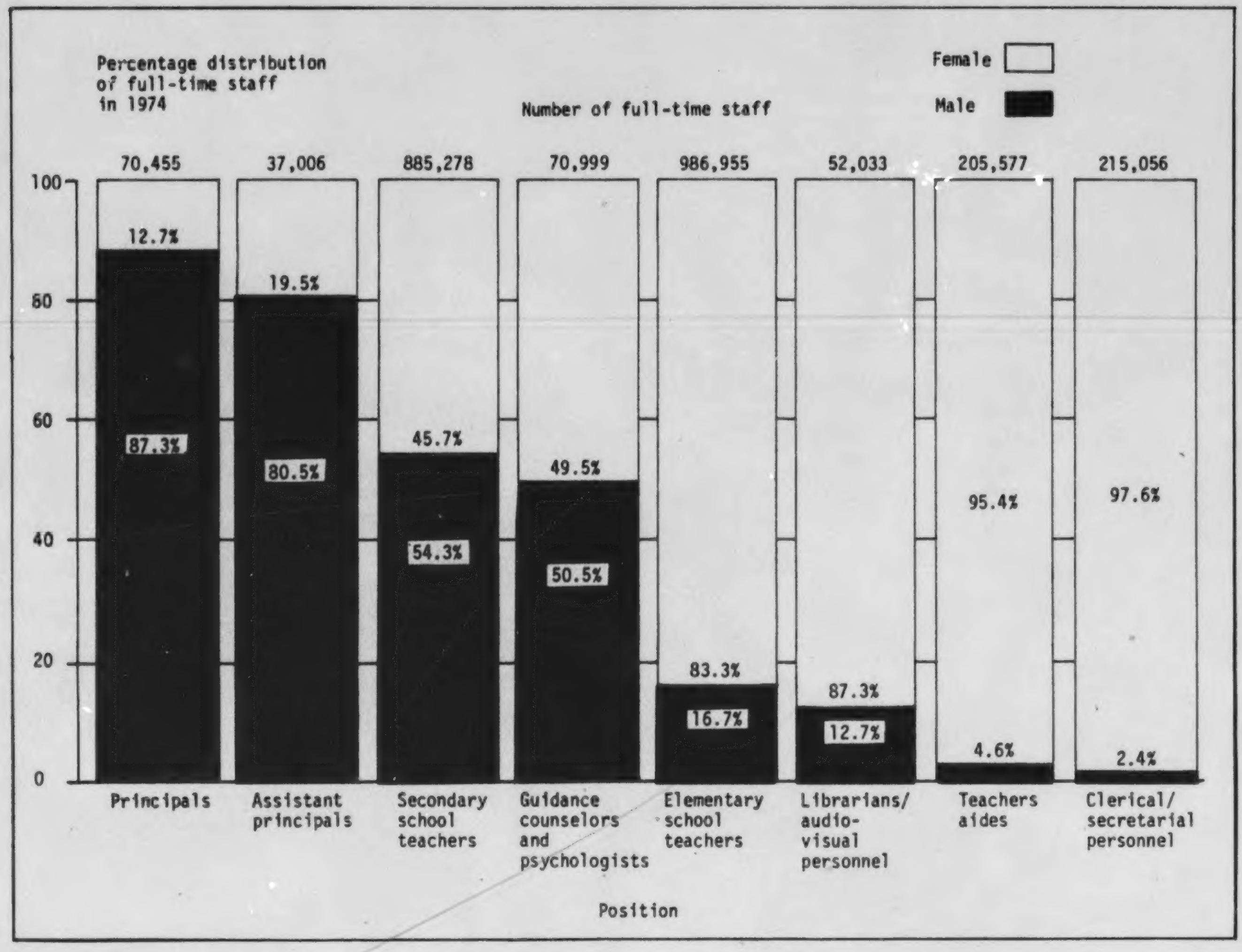
-- Taken from Pottker and Fishel, Sex Bias in the Schools: The Research Evidence, 1977, p. 283.

J. Education--Elementary and Secondary Levels

School Staff by Position and Sex (1974):

The staff composition of elementary and secondary schools reflects traditional patterns by sex. While 87.3 percent of principals were male, only 16.7 percent of elementary school teachers were male and 83.3% were female.

Table 16: Elementary and Secondary School Staff



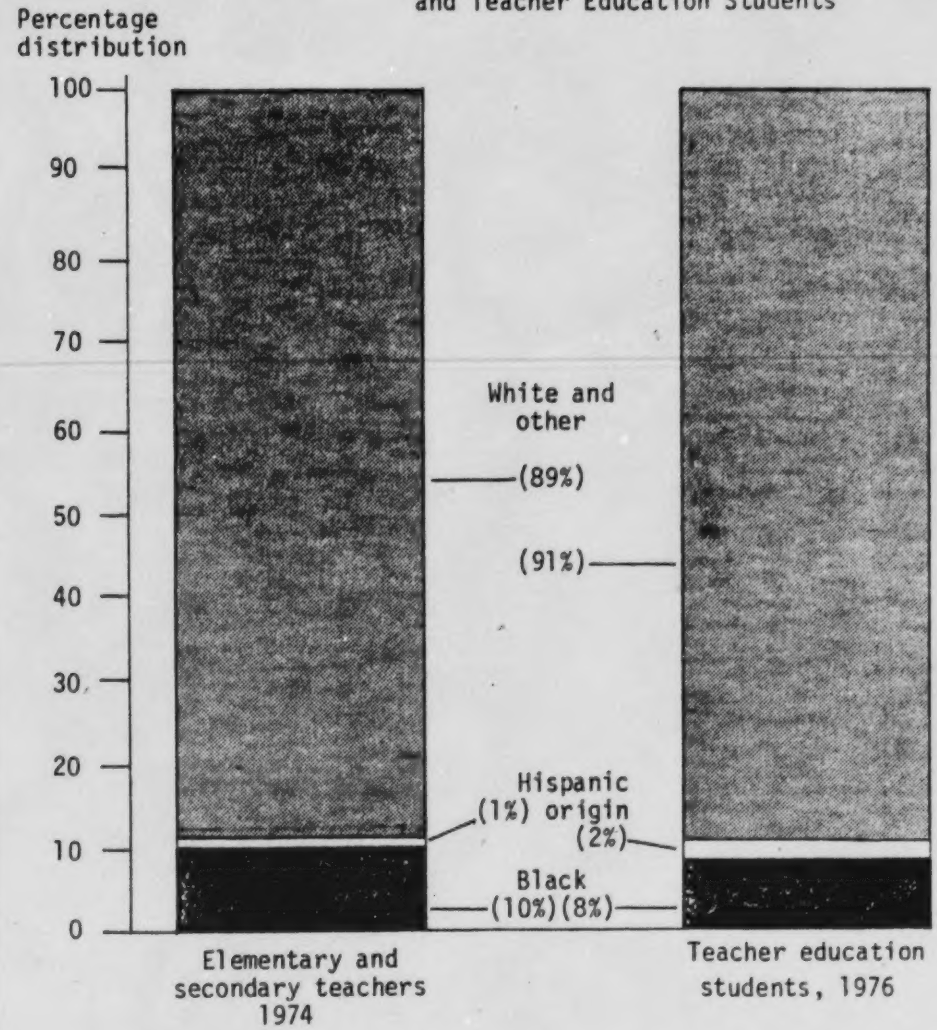
Source of Data: Equal Employment Opportunity Commission

-- Taken from "How Women and Minorities Rank in U. S. Education," 1977, p. 25

Teachers by Race (1974):

Data describing the ethnic backgrounds of teachers and teacher education students were obtained from different sources and hence are not strictly comparable. However, it appears that a somewhat smaller percent of teacher education students than teachers generally are from minority groups.

Table 17: Racial Composition of Teachers and Teacher Education Students



Source of Data: Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, National Center for Education Statistics

-- Taken from "How Women and Minorities Rank in U. S. Education," 1977, p. 25.

Racial Minority Profile (High School Students):

Nationally
1974

Who Graduates High School?

65% of Blacks are high school graduates;
90% of whites are graduates;
27% of Chicanos graduate;
26% of Puerto Ricans graduate from high school

Nationally
1972

Who Goes to Segregated Schools?

45% of Black students are still in schools over 80% Black.
11% of Black students are still in 100% segregated schools.

Nationally
1970

Who Drops Out of High School?

22% of Blacks are dropouts at 16 years of age;
12% of whites are dropouts at the same age.
Item: In the Boston public schools, 90% of Puerto Rican junior high school students drop out. In New York City, Puerto Ricans have the highest dropout rate of all groups. Chicanos drop out at a rate 3 times that of Anglos. Half of all Indian youths never get beyond 8th grade.

Source: National Education Association, 1974

Suspensions

City	% Minority Students	% Minority Suspensions
New York	64.4%	85.9%
Houston	56.4	71
Cleveland	59.9	70.8
Memphis	58	70.2
Dallas	49.4	68.5

At secondary school level, nation-wide, white suspensions are 4.1%, Black 12.8%, Puerto Rican 9.4% and Chicano 7.1%.

Source: *Children Out of School in America*, 1974

A HEW survey of 2,908 school systems which enrolled 95% of all public school minority students found: 6% of Black students were suspended at least once, compared to 5% of the total minorities, and only 3% of the whites. Black students are 27% of all students in the poll, but 42% of all suspensions and 37% of all expulsions.

Source: *J.E.T.*, 3/27/75

-- Taken from "Education: White Control" (n.d.).

School Boards and Staff by Race and City:

In 1973 non-whites were about 1.5% of all elected school board members. Non-white students were almost 22% of all students.

Source: *National Education Association*, 1974

In 1974 in the 11 southern states 325 out of 17,500 school board members were Black.

Source: *Voter Education Project*, 1974

Based on 1970 Census

City	% Minority Students	% Minority Teachers	Race of Superintendent	School Board	
				White	Other
Atlanta	82.5%	59.6%	Black	4	5
Berkeley	74	31.7	Black	3	3
Boston	38	6	white	5	0
Chicago	69.3	36.4	white	7	4
Dayton	45	31.7	white	6	1
Detroit	71.5	42.4	white	4	9
El Paso	64	23.7	white	5	2
Harrisburg	65.4	22	Black	9	0
Los Angeles	50.9	22.3	white	6	1
Minneapolis	12.7	5.8	white	7	1
Newark	88	36.7	Black	4	5
New Orleans	77.2	56.8	white	4	1
New York	63	8.5	white	180	99
Oakland	71.9	29.1	white	5	2
Philadelphia	65.9	32.2	white	6	3
Phoenix	25.7	14.7	white	5	0
San Antonio	80	27.5	white	3	4
Trenton	79	29.3	white	6	3
Wilmington	88	57.9	Black	3	4

Source: *Minorities in Policy-Making Positions in Public Education*, Nov/74

In Denver, Chicanos are 25% of students, but 2.3% of teachers. 600 of Colorado's 27,000 public school teachers are Chicanos.

Source: *N. Y. TIMES*, 7/2/75

In 1972-73, out of 199 Bureau of Indian Affairs schools, only 13 were operated by the Indian communites they serve.

Source: *U.S. Department of Interior*, 1975

In 5 southwestern states, Mexican Americans constitute:

17% of all pupils
3% of all principals
4% of all teachers
28.2% of all custodians
5.6% of all students entering college

Source: U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, April/1971

Ratio of PRINCIPALS TO STUDENTS--New York City for 1972-73	
Black principals to Black students	1: 2,992
Spanish-surnamed principals to Spanish-surnamed students	1:15,169
White principals to white students	1: 509

Ratio of TEACHERS TO STUDENTS--New York City for 1972-73	
Black teachers to Black students	1: 84
Spanish-surnamed teachers to Spanish-surnamed students	1:262
White teachers to white students	1: 8

Source: Metropolitan Applied Research Council, Jan/1974

-- Taken from "Education: White Control" (n.d.).

School Staff by Sex (1972):

Table 18: Estimated Number and Percent Distribution of Full-time Public-school Professional Employees, 1972-73, by Sex

Position	Number of persons			Percentage distribution		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Instructional Staff						
Teachers	2,110,368	709,084	1,401,284	100.0	33.6	66.4
Principals						
Elementary (including teaching principals)	48,196	38,750	9,446	100.0	80.4	19.6
Junior high	9,374	9,102	272	100.0	97.1	2.9
Senior high	15,827	15,605	222	100.0	98.6	1.4
Total principals	73,397	65,457	9,940	100.0	86.5	13.5
Assistant principals						
Elementary	6,483	4,486	1,997	100.0	69.2	30.8
Junior high	7,817	7,223	594	100.0	92.4	7.6
Senior high	13,289	12,439	850	100.0	93.6	6.4
Total assistant principals	27,589	24,148	3,441	100.0	87.5	12.5
Other instructional staff						
School librarians	40,540	3,324	37,216	100.0	8.2	91.8
Counselors	49,770	26,378	23,392	100.0	53.0	47.0
School nurses	17,074	239	16,835	100.0	1.4	98.6
Other*	33,691	16,812	16,879	100.0	49.9	50.1
Total other instructional staff	141,075	46,753	94,322	100.0	33.1	66.9
Total instructional staff	2,352,429	843,442	1,508,987	100.0	35.9	64.1
Central-office Administrators						
Superintendents	13,037	12,972	65	100.0	99.9	0.1
Deputy and associate superintendents	853	800	53	100.0	93.8	6.2
Assistant superintendents	5,337	5,054	283	100.0	94.7	5.3
Other central-office administrators**	48,488	31,614	16,874	100.0	65.0	35.0
Total central-office administrators	67,715	50,440	17,275	100.0	74.4	25.6
Total Full-time Professional Employees	2,420,144	893,882	1,526,262	100.0	37.2	62.8

*Includes heads of departments, social workers, visiting teachers, psychologists, and psychometrists.

**Includes central-office administrator for General Administration, Finance and School Plant. Pupil Personnel Services, Instruction--administration, and Special Subject areas.

-- Taken from Pottker and Fishel, Sex Bias in the Schools: The Research Evidence, 1977, p. 510

Textbooks--Comparison of Occupations Represented to Women in Labor Force:

Comparison of Occupations of Text-women to Women in Labor Force

Overrepresentation Greatly More	More	Same	Fewer	Underrepresentation Greatly Fewer
Housewife	Nurse	Librarian	Secretary	Clerical Worker
Elementary Schoolteacher	Small-store Owner	Housekeeper	Service Worker	Waitress
Trapeze Artist	Recreation Director			
Elephant Trainer	Baker			
	Landlady			

-- Taken from Pottker and Fishel, _Sex Bias in the Schools: The Research Evidence_, 1977, p. 117.

K. _Education--Postsecondary/Higher Education_

Distribution of Enrollment in Vocational Education by Sex:

Table 19: Percentage Distribution of Enrollment in Vocational Education Areas by Sex, 1977 - Projected*

Program	1972 % Male	1977 % Male	1972 % Female	1977 % Female
Agriculture	94.6	92.0	5.4	8.0
Distribution	54.7	54.0	45.3	46.0
Health	15.3	17.0	84.7	83.0
Home Economics	8.4	10.0	91.6	90.0
Office	23.6	25.0	76.4	75.0
Technical	90.2	91.0	9.8	9.0
Trade and Industrial	88.3	87.0	11.7	13.0

*Includes unduplicated enrollments and enrollments below grade 9.

Source: Division of Vocational and Technical Education, _Trends in Vocational Education Fiscal Year 1972_, Washington: Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, June, 1973, p. 7.

-- Taken from _How to Erase Sex Discrimination in Vocational Education_, 1977, p. 57.

Professors with Tenure (1977):

FACT-FILE

Table 20: Professors with Tenure

1977-78 report compares percentages for men, women

	All Institutions			Public Institutions			Private Institutions		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Alabama	59.0%	46.7%	55.0%	59.6%	46.7%	55.5%	50.3%	46.7%	49.1%
Arizona	51.4	34.5	47.6	51.6	33.9	47.6	45.1	53.8	47.2
Arkansas	55.5	40.4	51.0	57.9	40.7	52.7	41.8	37.8	40.8
California	51.8	48.0	50.9	51.0	50.1	50.7	56.4	32.8	51.7
Colorado	60.0	35.5	55.0	59.7	34.2	54.7	62.4	41.4	57.1
Connecticut	71.7	53.7	67.4	79.7	64.2	75.8	61.3	36.5	56.0
Delaware	62.3	22.7	52.0	62.4	25.0	53.6	61.5	12.5	36.7
District of Columbia ...	49.0	32.2	43.6	21.3	14.5	18.8	57.8	40.4	52.7
Florida	66.7	52.8	62.9	71.0	57.5	67.2	49.5	29.0	44.8
Georgia	51.2	27.9	44.2	54.0	27.6	46.3	42.9	28.7	38.1
Hawaii	72.4	57.6	68.7	72.6	58.0	69.0	62.5	46.2	56.8
Idaho	44.5	31.2	41.9	55.3	34.7	51.1	1.9	13.6	3.8
Illinois	69.4	53.3	65.5	73.1	59.1	69.5	61.5	38.2	56.4
Indiana	62.8	39.7	57.3	63.2	41.9	57.9	62.0	33.8	56.1
Iowa	42.3	30.0	39.3	31.1	25.0	29.6	59.4	37.2	53.9
Kansas	56.9	31.8	51.3	59.7	34.3	54.2	39.9	19.6	34.7
Kentucky	59.8	43.0	55.1	60.8	42.3	55.8	55.1	45.5	51.9
Louisiana	57.4	44.9	53.6	60.8	47.0	56.4	43.3	32.9	40.7
Maine	58.8	28.7	53.1	66.3	34.2	59.9	45.7	17.4	40.8
Maryland	65.0	50.3	60.4	67.3	53.4	62.7	55.8	31.8	49.8
Massachusetts	62.0	41.7	56.9	76.4	56.8	70.1	55.1	29.0	49.5
Michigan	69.2	52.9	65.1	72.6	59.1	69.3	53.3	27.3	46.2
Minnesota	62.0	38.0	56.5	63.2	40.6	58.2	58.9	32.3	52.3
Mississippi	38.2	19.5	31.4	37.2	18.4	30.2	44.8	27.6	39.0
Missouri	58.9	35.3	52.8	58.3	33.7	51.9	60.6	39.2	55.0
Montana	64.6	40.8	60.2	64.7	43.5	61.0	63.4	26.7	53.6
Nebraska	61.4	31.6	54.4	60.9	32.7	54.6	63.2	28.7	54.0
Nevada	59.4	36.1	54.3	59.4	36.1	54.3	--	--	--
New Hampshire	64.4	31.2	56.9	74.7	41.5	68.7	52.1	24.0	44.4
New Jersey	69.5	51.0	64.2	70.2	54.2	65.2	67.6	36.2	61.0

(cont.)

Professors with Tenure (continued)

	All Institutions			Public Institutions			Private Institutions		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
New Mexico	64.1%	38.6%	58.5%	64.8%	38.4%	59.5%	52.6%	39.7%	47.1%
New York	67.6	43.2	61.9	75.1	51.4	70.0	62.9	38.9	57.0
North Carolina	53.7	32.1	47.0	54.9	31.3	47.8	50.0	34.2	44.8
North Dakota	57.2	32.8	51.1	60.7	39.0	55.7	--	--	--
Ohio	59.2	40.3	54.9	55.9	39.6	52.1	66.3	42.0	61.0
Oklahoma	53.1	35.6	48.3	55.0	38.4	50.3	47.0	25.7	41.4
Oregon	68.7	51.1	64.7	71.0	54.0	67.1	55.7	31.2	50.8
Pennsylvania	69.5	50.6	65.3	73.9	62.5	71.2	65.3	37.0	59.4
Rhode Island	62.5	38.4	57.1	71.9	51.0	65.9	54.8	16.5	48.7
South Carolina	44.2	22.0	37.8	42.6	18.8	35.9	49.8	32.6	44.7
South Dakota	64.5	39.7	58.8	66.8	47.7	63.0	57.4	26.8	47.7
Tennessee	62.7	41.2	57.2	62.7	43.2	57.7	62.6	35.7	56.0
Texas	55.5	33.7	49.4	55.7	33.5	49.4	54.4	34.6	49.0
Utah	69.2	35.6	63.2	69.6	35.8	63.7	54.3	31.8	45.6
Vermont	54.3	26.5	47.4	63.1	35.7	56.1	42.1	12.0	35.2
Virginia	53.6	37.2	49.5	52.9	36.0	48.9	55.9	39.8	51.2
Washington	76.1	57.2	71.7	79.0	61.3	74.9	60.0	37.2	54.0
West Virginia	60.0	42.5	54.7	61.8	44.0	56.6	51.4	36.7	46.5
Wisconsin	65.2	40.2	59.4	65.8	42.4	60.5	61.6	27.8	53.5
Wyoming	64.1	45.8	60.5	64.1	45.8	60.5	--	--	--
U.S. service schools	72.0	--	70.3	72.0	--	70.3	--	--	--
Outlying areas	56.8	56.9	56.9	63.5	62.7	63.1	21.3	26.0	23.5
Total	60.6%	42.5%	56.0%	61.5%	45.2%	57.3%	58.2%	34.6%	52.4%

NOTE: Data for Alaska not reported.

SOURCE: National Center for Education Statistics

-- Taken from "Fact-File: Professors with Tenure," Chronicle of Higher Education, May 8, 1978.

Position of Racial Minorities:

College Faculty:

In 1969, whites made up 96.3% of all 4-year and 2-year college faculties. Blacks were 2.2%, and other minorities, 1.6%.

Source: Statistical Abstract of the U.S., 1972

In New York state, of 9,400 faculty members at the State University of New York, only 32 were Puerto Ricans, and of 3,056 in the school's administration, only a handful were Puerto Ricans.

Source: N. Y. Times, February 15, 1972

In the Southwest, there are 20 white students to every white faculty member. For Mexican Americans, the student-to-faculty ratio is 100 to one. There would have to be 6,000 more Chicano/Chicana faculty members hired to attain the same ratio enjoyed by whites.

Source: N. Y. Times, September 24, 1972

In New York City, at Bronx Community College, 8-1/2 percent of the instructional personnel are minorities, while 61% of the custodians are minorities. At Brooklyn College, 7% of the instructional staff are minorities, while 63% of the custodians are minorities.

Source: N. Y. Amsterdam News, March 25, 1972

-- Above four items taken from "Education: White Control" (n.d.).

Blacks:

Both Black women and Black men still have considerably lower median levels of education than white females or white males:

Table 21: Increase in Median Level of Education for persons over 14 years old

	white male	black male	white female	black female
1972	12.4 yrs.	10.9	12.3	11.1
1966	12.0	9.4	12.2	10.1
increase	.4	1.5	.1	1.0

-- Taken from Minority Women and Higher Education #1, 1974, p. 2.

More Black men than Black women are now in college:

1973 Ages 18-24:

Black M.	Black W.	White M.	White W.
19%	14%	29%	21%

Total Blacks in college: 16% of all Blacks 18-24 years

Total whites in college: 25% of all whites 18-24 years

-- Taken from Minority Women and Higher Education #1, 1974, p. 2.

Educational Aspirations:

About the same percentage of Black females and Black males aspire to advanced degrees, but Black females are over twice as likely to aspire to the Ph.D. than white females. Just as white women have lower aspirations than white men, Black women are more likely to aspire to lower degrees than Black men.

-- Taken from Minority Women and Higher Education #1, 1974, p. 3.

Spanish-Speaking:

The Spanish speaking population in this country is younger than the population as a whole. The median age of Spanish speaking persons in the United States is 20.1 years, compared to 28.1 years for all persons.

Very few Spanish speaking women are highly educated. As of March 1974, the median number of years of education for all Spanish speaking women (14 years old or over) was only 9.7. While this is not much less than the median level of education for men of Spanish origin (10.0 years), it is far below the median level of white men and women (12.3 years each).

A number of women of Spanish origin have some experience in higher education, even though they do not complete four years of college. Of Spanish speaking women (14 years old and over) 5.9 have had from one to three years of college. In all, only 2.7 percent of Spanish speaking women (14 years old and over) had completed four years of college in 1973. In contrast, 3.3 percent of Black females, 6.1 percent of white females, and 7.7 percent of white males had completed four years of college.

-- Taken from Minority Women and Higher Education #2, 1975, pp. 1-2.

Native American and Asian-American:

The Project on the Status and Education of Women, which collected the data on Blacks and on Spanish speaking people (above), is also planning to do information sheets on Native Americans and Asian-Americans.

Minority Students:

Minority Women Vary in Educational Attainment

Minority women are not a monolithic group in academe or elsewhere, and a report issued in January 1977 by the American Council on Education (ACE) illustrates some of the differences among minority women in higher education. ACE's Higher Education Panel Report No. 24, *Bachelor's Degrees Awarded to Minority Students, 1973-74*, reports that:

- among all minority bachelor degree recipients, 53% were women and 47% were men;
- the lowest proportion of women recipients was among American Indians, where they were 37%, and the highest proportion was among Black Americans, where they were 57%;
- the proportion of women among Asian American and Spanish American recipients paralleled the national figure for all students, 45%.

The report also notes that minority women, like white women, were less likely to receive degrees from universities, especially private universities.

Further evidence of the differences (and similarities) among minority women is provided by enrollment data from the Office for Civil Rights (OCR). OCR reports that in 1974, of the total number of minority students in undergraduate schools, 586,160 were female and 596,365 were male. [NOTE: The discrepancy between this enrollment figure and the degree recipient figure above is apparently due to the lower dropout rate of females.] In graduate schools, minority females and males were almost evenly divided at just over 49,000 each. At the graduate level, black females outnumbered black males by 38,926 to 28,107. However, males of other minority groups (American Indian, Asian American and Spanish Americans) outnumbered females of the same minority by almost two to one. Finally, in the professional schools, *all* male minorities outnumbered female minorities *more than three to one.*

Single copies of the ACE report can be obtained from Higher Education Panel, American Council on Education, One Dupont Circle, Washington, DC 20036. For further information on the enrollment of minorities, contact Mary Lou Watkins, Office of Public Information, Office for Civil Rights, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, DC 20201.

-- Taken from "Minority Women," On Campus with Women, October 1977, p. 7.

Percentage of Women Faculty By Rank (1974, 1975):

The percentage of women on faculties, at all levels, at all kinds of institutions, has crept upward at a painfully slow rate over the last couple of years. In 1974 women were 23.8% of full-time faculty, according to government figures; AAUP figures were slightly lower. The latest HEW statistics estimate women at slightly 25% of the 1976-77 faculty.

Following are the 1974 and 1976 figures:

Percentage of Women Among Full-Time Faculty

Academic Rank	1974-75	1975-76
All ranks combined	23.8	24.3
Professor	9.8	9.6
Associate Professor	16.8	17.1
Assistant Professor	27.2	28.8
Instructor	40.4	40.6
Lecturer	39.6	41.4
Undesignated Rank	33.2	33.2

-- Taken from "Facts about Women in Higher Education," 1978, p. 28.

Salaries of Faculty by Sex (1976):

Five years ago Astin and Bayer reported that women full professors made an average of $1,700 less than their male counterparts. That gap has widened to $2,316 according to 1976-77 salary figures from HEW.

Mean Salaries of Full-Time Faculty 1976-77

Rank	Men	Women	Gap
All Ranks	$18,269	$15,039	$3,230
Professor	23,828	21,512	2,316
Associate Professor	18,003	17,211	792
Assistant Professor	14,815	14,134	681
Instructor	12,234	11,501	733
Lecturer	13,245	11,838	1,407
Undesignated Rank	17,211	15,403	1,808

In general, women are getting raises at the same rate as men (about 5% for 1976-77), but salary inequity still prevails because of the gap which existed in the first place.

-- Taken from "Facts about Women in Higher Education," 1978, p. 29.

Women in Administration by Race (1977):

Two new surveys of women in administration show that not only have women failed to achieve equality, but their status has not improved at all in the last four years. The surveys, based on data as current as 1977, show:

- That women are paid about four-fifths as much as men with the same job titles at the same type of institution;
- That of the key administrative positions at all institutions surveyed, 79% were held by white men. White women held 14%, minority men 5%, and minority women 2%;
- That the only administrative job in which both females and males, whites and minority group members, had a balanced representation was that of "affirmative action officer";
- That among affirmative action officers, men are paid more than women.

Only about 1% of all the presidents of public four-year colleges and public and private universities are women. None of the 65 presidents of private universities is a woman. Of the women who are college presidents, the vast majority head either Roman Catholic or women's colleges.

-- Taken from "Facts about Women in Higher Education," 1978, p. 29.

Percent of Doctorates Received by Women (1900-1973):

THE WOMEN PICTURE

Percentage of Doctorates Received by Women--
Selected Years--1900 to 1973

Year	%	Year	%
1900	5.8	1950	5.7
1910	9.9	1960	10.5
1920	15.1	1970	13.3
1930	15.1	1973	18.0*
1940	13.0		

Source: Data for 1900-1970 from American Council on Education (1973, p. 1771).

*This figure is also from the National Research Council/National Academy of Sciences, *Doctoral Recipients in United States Universities, 1974*.

-- Taken from Comment, April 1977.

Doctorates Awarded by Field, Sex, and Ethnic Group (1973-1976):

Table 22: Number of Doctorates Awarded in the United States, 1973-76

	White	Black	American Indian	Chicano	Puerto Rican	Asian	Other & Unknown	Total
MEN								
Mathematics	2,562	31	14	14	5	20	300	2,946
Physics and astronomy	3,166	20	11	11	4	18	400	3,630
Chemistry	4,227	75	10	21	4	32	432	4,801
Earth sciences	1,679	4	10	4	6	11	183	1,897
Engineering	5,663	52	23	16	17	46	615	6,432
Biosciences	10,217	153	54	63	20	116	1,113	11,736
Psychology	5,795	146	36	39	21	28	586	6,651
Social sciences	7,425	187	37	53	12	37	913	8,664
Arts and humanities	10,141	191	62	77	23	27	1,239	11,760
Professional fields	3,332	78	13	14	8	10	354	3,809
Education	15,438	1,315	134	201	35	54	1,733	18,910
Other	55	1	--	1	--	1	8	66
Unknown	8	--	--	--	--	--	6	14
Total	69,708	2,253	404	514	155	400	7,882	81,316
WOMEN								
Mathematics	299	5	--	1	--	4	19	328
Physics and astronomy	113	3	1	--	--	2	11	130
Chemistry	426	6	2	--	1	8	29	472
Earth sciences	121	3	1	--	--	--	12	137
Engineering	86	--	--	--	--	--	2	88
Biosciences	2,470	71	12	7	4	29	211	2,804
Psychology	2,594	86	11	6	7	19	225	2,948
Social sciences	1,978	68	11	8	9	6	154	2,234
Arts and humanities	4,543	107	28	33	10	31	446	5,198
Professional fields	633	53	5	6	2	5	62	766
Education	6,196	775	42	49	30	39	588	7,719
Other	20	--	--	--	--	--	--	20
Unknown	3	--	--	--	--	--	--	3
Total	19,482	1,177	113	110	63	143	1,759	22,847

NOTE: Figures include native-born U.S. citizens only.

SOURCE: Survey of Earned Doctorates, National Research Council

-- Taken from "Fact-File," Chronicle of Higher Education, 1978, p. 18.

Women Students--Enrollment Increases (1977):

The latest Census Bureau report on college enrollment reveals that a majority of young college students are female: 52% of all students under age 22. While the number of young men under 22 has remained about the same, enrollment of women under 22 rose 35% between 1970 and 1976. In 1977, women's strong upward trend in enrollment at all ages continued, accounting for a startling 93% of the year's enrollment growth at colleges and universities. The increase in enrollment among women age 22-35 between 1970 and 1976 was 103%. Among students 35 and older, women comprise 59%, up from 52% in 1975. Older women are now the fastest growing group of postsecondary students.

-- Taken from "Joe College Is Now a Woman," 1978, p. 3.

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